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THE UNIVERSITY OF ALBERTA

A RATIONALE FOR THE DEVELOPMENT OF COMPARATIVE  
PHYSICAL EDUCATION

by

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A THESIS

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The undersigned certify that they have read, and recommend to the Faculty of Graduate Studies for acceptance, a thesis entitled "A Rationale for the Development of Comparative Physical Education," submitted by Donald Hugh Morrison in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Master of Arts.

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## ABSTRACT

The purpose of the study was to provide a rationale for the development of comparative studies of systems of physical education.

Some of the more recent comparative studies of physical education have been reviewed to evaluate the progress that has been made and to point out some of the limitations and difficulties that researchers have encountered. A set of purposes was presented in order to outline in general terms some objectives of the subject of comparative physical education. This subject was seen as having merit: as an aid to the accumulation of knowledge about the field of physical education; for the provision of a broad perspective of the development of the field; for contributing to the success of professional education; for the improvement of international understanding; and as a source of reliable information which might aid administrators to increase their effectiveness as change agents.

With a perspective for comparative studies in physical education thus established, attention was turned to the task of developing a conceptual structure which could provide a basis for research in this subject. Selected literature in the fields of comparative education, cultural anthropology, and sociology was reviewed in order to reveal concepts and classification schemes which would be relevant or could be adapted for the study of systems of physical education. The field of comparative education provided considerable information about the comparative approach to research as well as some useful frameworks for





studying the organizations sponsoring physical education in the school and the community. Cultural anthropology supplied many useful concepts for studying culture, its component parts and the setting in which it functions as a dynamic entity. Sociology provided concepts for studying society and its interrelationships with culture, and the structures and functioning of the many social systems of which society is comprised. These latter two fields revealed many useful devices for studying the system of physical education and its component sub-systems as cultural and social phenomena.

A conceptual structure for comparative physical education was developed. The comparative approach adopted included the four stages of description, explanation, juxtaposition, and comparison. Classification schemes were presented: for assessing the relevant ecological, social, and cultural factors that interact with the system of physical education; for describing the historical development and dynamic processes of the system; for identifying the various institutions which provide opportunities for physical education; and for analysing the structures and functions of these institutions.



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The author is also sincerely grateful to his parents whose continued support and encouragement has been an essential factor in this venture.



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## CHAPTER I

### STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

#### I. INTRODUCTION

In his article, "Physical Education--An Academic Discipline," Franklin Henry states that the field of knowledge basic to physical education is constituted of certain portions of such fields as cultural anthropology, sociology, and history as well as the traditional related fields of anatomy, physics, and physiology.<sup>1</sup> This view is supported by the fact that in recent years there has been a growing interest in the study of physical education as a cultural and social phenomenon. These studies, employing a social science perspective, have no doubt been accelerated by the rapid growth of the social and behavioral sciences in the post-war period and the increased acceptability of research in these fields. In 1965, Kenyon and Loy made a plea for "the Study of Physical Activity as a Sociological and Social Psychological Phenomenon."<sup>2</sup> Other authors, including McIntosh,<sup>3</sup> Natan,<sup>4</sup> and Jokl,<sup>5</sup> have directed attention

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<sup>1</sup>Franklin M. Henry, "Physical Education--An Academic Discipline." (A paper delivered to the Third General Session, NCPEA, Dallas, January 10, 1964.)

<sup>2</sup>Gerald S. Kenyon and John W. Loy, "Toward a Sociology of Sport," Journal of Health-Physical Education-Recreation (May, 1965).

<sup>3</sup>P. C. McIntosh, Sport in Society (London: C. A. Watts & Co., Ltd., 1963).

<sup>4</sup>Alex Natan, Sport and Society (London: Bowes and Bowes, 1958).

<sup>5</sup>Ernst Jokl. Medical Sociology and Cultural Anthropology of Sport and Physical Education (Springfield, Ill.: Charles C. Thomas, 1964).



to the relationships between sport and society, and, sport and culture. Increased interest and concern for people in other countries and for the development of a more international perspective have become prevalent in the past few years, thus stimulating international and comparative studies in many fields. Frequently, in one form or another, the question arises as to how physical education and physical recreation, as social and cultural phenomena, compare in different countries? The expressed interest in this question, as shown at recent conferences<sup>6</sup> and in the periodical literature,<sup>7</sup> is an indication of the need for further attention to this problem.

In the past, there have been few comparative studies in physical education. Most of the early studies were graduate theses but, more recently, surveys have been carried out by organizations such as the International Council on Health, Physical Education, and Recreation (ICHPER),<sup>8</sup> and the Council for <sup>the</sup> Cultural Cooperation of the Council of Europe.<sup>9</sup> There have, furthermore, been a few studies by individual

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<sup>6</sup>Cyril M. White, "Towards a Sociology of Physical Education and Sport: Some Theoretical Considerations." (Unpublished paper given at the National AAPHER convention, Chicago, March 18, 1966); "Sociological Aspects of Sport and Physical Education," was the theme of the World Congress of Sports and Physical Education at Madrid, September 13-17, 1966.

<sup>7</sup>ICHPER. International Congress Reports, Vols. I-IX, all focus on physical education in various areas of the world.

<sup>8</sup>Questionnaire Reports: Part I, Physical Education and Games in the Curriculum; Part II, Teacher Training for Physical Education; Part III, Status of Teachers of Physical Education (Washington: ICHPER, 1963).

<sup>9</sup>Physical Education and Sport (Strasbourg: Council for the Cultural Co-operation of the Council of Europe, 1964).





physical educators<sup>10</sup> but these represent only the beginning to a subject of this scope. Cultural anthropologists, however, have recognized for some time now the value of studying games, sports, and play as cultural phenomena.<sup>11</sup> Comparative educators, under the auspices of UNESCO, have thus completed a study entitled "The Place of Sport in Education."<sup>12</sup> The problem with the studies done by specialists of other academic fields is that, as Henry has pointed out, "the areas within these fields that are vital to physical education receive haphazard and peripheral treatment, rather than systematic development, since the focus of attention is directed elsewhere."<sup>13</sup>

Physical educators, then, contemplating future studies should ensure that they do not make the same errors themselves. As the comparative study of physical education in various cultures is a relatively new subject area, there are no widely accepted guidelines for research approaches. In fact, there may even be some questions as to the relevancy of comparative studies for the field of physical education. If

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<sup>10</sup>M. L. Howell and M. L. Van Vliet, Physical Education and Recreation in Europe (Ottawa: Fitness and Amateur Sport Directorate, 1965); J. S. Calvert, R. E. Morgan and C. Sayer, Physical Education and Sport in the Soviet Union (Leeds: The University of Leeds Institute of Education, 1961); Randolph R. Nicholson, "Physical Education and Sports in an Emergent Territory: Influences of British Tradition and Changes Following Independence" (unpublished Master's thesis, University of Alberta, Edmonton, 1966).

<sup>11</sup>J. Huizinga, Homo Ludens--A Study of the Play-Element in Culture (Boston: The Beacon Press, 1955); John Roberts et al., "Games in Culture," American Anthropologist, LXI (August, 1959), pp. 597-605.

<sup>12</sup>UNESCO, The Place of Sport in Education--A Comparative Study (Paris: UNESCO Publications, 1956).

<sup>13</sup>Henry, op. cit., pp. 2-3.



they are to make their contribution to this field then physical educators need to acquire a better knowledge and understanding of the nature of comparative studies and of the role they may play in their field's future development.

As has been indicated, there is a need for a research approach which will facilitate communication between scholars through the codification of research in this subject. The value of such a research approach is recognized by C. W. Mills who states that, "To have mastered 'theory' and 'method' is to have become a self-conscious thinker, a man at work and aware of the assumptions and the implications of whatever he is about."<sup>14</sup> Parsons and Shils indicate that "general theory" in the social sciences aids the codification of existing concrete knowledge by providing generalized hypotheses for the systematic reformulation of existing facts and insights, and by unifying discrete observations under general concepts.<sup>15</sup> A conceptual framework will help to promote the process of cumulative growth of knowledge by encouraging researchers to be more aware of the interconnections among items of existing concrete knowledge which are now available in scattered and fragmentary forms, thus exposing the gaps and contradictions where further work must be done.<sup>16</sup>

Comparative studies in physical education are just in their

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<sup>14</sup>C. Wright Mills, "On Intellectual Craftsmanship," in Llewellyn Gross (ed.), Symposium on Sociological Theory (New York: Harper and Row, 1959), p. 29.

<sup>15</sup>Talcott Parsons and Edward A. Shils (eds.), Towards a General Theory of Action (Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press, 1959), p. 3.

<sup>16</sup>Ibid.





embryonic stage of development. It seems the appropriate time, therefore, to survey the literature of some related fields in order to gain some insights which might lead to the development of better theories and approaches to guide research in comparative physical education.

## II. THE PURPOSES OF THIS STUDY

Briefly stated, the purposes of this study are: (1) to evaluate some of the recent comparative studies of physical education; (2) to set out the purposes and merits of comparative work; (3) to review selected literature in the fields of comparative education, cultural anthropology, and sociology to discover some approaches and conceptual frameworks which may have useful application in comparative physical education; and (4) to provide some initial examples of the ways in which certain conceptual structures from these other fields may provide a useful frame of reference for comparative studies of national systems of physical education.

Although this thesis will focus primarily on the organizations at the national level, this is not intended to imply that this is the only level at which comparative studies may be undertaken. The utility of a conceptual framework is not limited and there is no reason why many of the same concepts cannot be applied at other levels of investigation.

For the purposes of this study, the term "physical education" will be used in its broadest sense. It will refer to formal educational programs as well as sport and physical recreation.

The presentation covers a broad area of study and will of



necessity be somewhat limited in depth. It is felt that, whereas ad hoc studies on specific problems have no doubt something to contribute to the profession, it is timely, due to the needs of the field and the current advances in the social and behavioral sciences, to begin to construct an over-all conceptual framework so that society through the profession may benefit more expeditiously from ad hoc studies which are being pursued or will be, by other physical educators in the near future. The intention is, therefore, to encourage comparative studies which are conceived, planned and conducted with a serious concern for having a cumulative effect on professional practice or society as a whole.

### III. THE ORGANIZATION OF THE STUDY

The problem of presenting a logical basis for the development of a relatively new field is of such a wide scope that it was difficult to decide how to organize the study. The following approach was eventually adopted. Chapter I serves to introduce the problem, and state the purposes and organization of the study. Chapter II attempts to provide a perspective for comparative studies in physical education. Following an evaluation of some of the recent comparative research in physical education, the purposes and assumed merits of such a subject area are discussed.

Chapter III focuses attention on the nature of comparative study. Due to the close relationships between the fields of physical education and education it was felt that the discipline of comparative





education would possibly have some approaches to research that might prove useful for comparative physical education. Therefore, the first section of Chapter III outlines some of the main approaches to research that have been utilized in comparative education, and presents a few of the recent classification systems which seem to have relevance for comparative physical education. The latter section of this chapter discusses the nature of comparative studies in physical education.

Chapter IV reviews several of the concepts presently being employed in cultural anthropology and sociology to describe and explain the structure and functioning of culture and society, and the ways in which they interact with each other and with the natural environment. If physical education is to be studied as a cultural and social phenomenon, then it was felt that researchers should have some basic knowledge about culture and society. Attention is focused on the major aspects of culture in order to provide a frame of reference for studying their interrelationships with and influence on physical education. Although sociology does not provide as many classification devices for empirical studies, it does reveal many useful concepts for analysing human social behavior and the social action which is part of every functioning organization. Thus, Chapter IV attempts to provide a theoretical basis for understanding physical education as a social and cultural phenomenon..

Chapter V, the final chapter, applies certain concepts and conceptual structures from the related fields in the development of a framework for the description and analysis of physical education. The



writer will attempt to show that this scheme can be utilized to select relevant data for empirical studies.

In reality, this study will rely on an eclectic approach, and attempt to benefit from the experience and historical development of the related fields of comparative education, cultural anthropology, and sociology. The writer realizes that eclecticism does not presently enjoy favor by all scholars in academic circles. In recent times, however, there has been a growing trend towards interdisciplinary study due to the realization that such gross cultural studies are not organized into disciplines in the same way that universities are.<sup>17</sup> This thesis seeks to establish justification for a reasoned eclecticism in order to articulate a conceptual scheme which brings into fruitful juxtaposition concepts and approaches derived from several social sciences. It is acknowledged that a scholar must be conscious of not utilizing concepts without due regard to the theoretical or empirical contexts from which they have been taken. Thus, there has been careful consideration of underlying theories throughout the selective process. However, some adaptation will inevitably occur or the study will not have fulfilled its function of providing a means for the integration of knowledge derived from many sources for the purpose of providing a conceptual framework for comparative physical education.

In all chapters there is a tendency to sacrifice elaborate

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<sup>17</sup> Russel L. Ackoff, "Systems, Organizations and Interdisciplinary Research," General Systems, V (1960), p. 6.





discussion and fine detail about any one topic in favor of providing more general direction in many different areas. The task of further research will be to delve more deeply into many of the concepts and to study the theory of related fields more rigorously for information which will lead to improved research. Finally, all efforts at trying to provide theory will be to no avail if it be not tested through empirical studies. "Theory without practice is vain; practice without theory is blind and irrational."<sup>18</sup>

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<sup>18</sup>David Bidney, Theoretical Anthropology (New York: Columbia University Press, 1953), p. 378.



## CHAPTER II

### A PERSPECTIVE FOR COMPARATIVE STUDIES IN PHYSICAL EDUCATION

#### I. AN EVALUATION OF SOME RECENT RESEARCH IN COMPARATIVE PHYSICAL EDUCATION

The twentieth century brought with it many new conditions which have influenced the cultural development of all nations of the world. Greatly improved transportation and communication have facilitated international contacts, broadened national perspectives and increased the exposure to other peoples and their cultures. In academic circles, work in the social sciences has become much more acceptable and has drawn attention to the complexity of both individual and group behavior. Greater interest in the study of the similarities and differences between cultures has stimulated the growth of cultural anthropology and of comparative studies in such fields as education, politics, economics, and religion. Physical education, too, has undergone many changes in adjusting to the new developments of the times.

During the nineteenth century, the development of physical education in most of the modern nations had been heavily influenced by practices which had been developed in other countries. For example, the "heavy" gymnastics developed in Germany, the Swedish Ling system, and the English program of sports and games all had an influence on the



development of physical education in the United States.<sup>1</sup> Many of the practices adopted from other countries did not fit their new cultural context and as a result they were altered to suit the different conditions or were discarded altogether. When this had happened on several occasions, administrators seem to have gradually grown aware of the danger of grasping new ideas from other countries too quickly. There was a need for more accurate assessments of the relevant factors; not only the factors in physical education but also those in the inter-related cultural context. In spite of this, very little serious attention seems to have been given to systematic comparative studies.

### Exchanges Through Sport

The revival of the modern Olympic Games is perhaps symbolic of the beginning of international sport competitions on a grand scale. It is remarkable how the frequency of international competitions has increased since the early Olympics and how they have come to include such a vast array of sports. These competitions have played an important role in the exchange of ideas about physical education and sport between members of different countries and cultures. They have also provided a testing ground for comparing the relative success of different

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<sup>1</sup> Emmett A. Rice, John L. Hutchinson, and Mabel Lee, A Brief History of Physical Education (New York: The Ronald Press Company, 1958), pp. 203-09, 237; and Deobold B. Van Dalen, Elmer D. Mitchell and Bruce L. Bennett, A World History of Physical Education: Cultural-Philosophical-Comparative (Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1953), pp. 367-380, 390-411.





techniques and training methods. This stimulated interest in the countries which seemed to be having the greatest success. For example, Germany made a very poor showing in the 1912 Olympics. This dealt a blow to German pride which aroused national concern for improving their training methods.<sup>2</sup> Impressed by the success of the United States, the German government sent a study commission, headed by Carl Diem, to the United States in 1913. The commission returned not only with many ideas on the playground system which had become a fundamental part of physical education in American cities, but also with a coach who was to train German athletes for the next Olympic games.<sup>3</sup> This conscious effort to gain solutions to problems by observing the practices of another nation represented one of the early attempts to carry out comparison in a more systematic manner. This type of approach became more common as the years went on.

In sport today, there are many examples of the use of more refined techniques to gather information from other countries. Films and photographs are used to analyse the performances of other athletes and teams. Many countries, for example Canada, Czechoslovakia, and Russia, maintain documentation centers for the purpose of gathering, translating and distributing sports literature from other countries. Coaches and physical educators are imported from other countries to teach new techniques and training methods. Conferences and clinics often bring together persons from several different countries. In Canada, as an example, the track and field program is directed by the well-known

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<sup>2</sup>Van Dalen et al., op. cit., p. 230.

<sup>3</sup>Ibid.





English coach, Geoffery Dyson, and the annual national clinic at Guelph, Ontario attracts coaches and athletes from several different countries. Certainly, the frequency of international competitions encourages the exchange of ideas and opinions between administrators, officials, coaches and the athletes themselves. Many of the exchanges of this nature have proved valuable for the development of the various sports involved.

### National Studies

In the past decade, there have been a few historical and comparative studies of physical education in different countries of the world. Yu attempted to identify the factors which influenced the growth and development of physical education in China.<sup>4</sup> Osborne carried out a historical study of physical education in Germany and assessed its influence in the United States.<sup>5</sup> Wertz centered on a related topic and compared physical education in Germany and the United States between 1860 and 1930.<sup>6</sup> Calvert, Morgan, and Sayer published a brief review of their impressions of physical education in the Soviet Union after a visit

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<sup>4</sup>Marina Yu, "The History of Physical Education in China and the Factors Which Have Influenced its Growth and Development" (unpublished Master's thesis, Texas Women's University, Denton, 1961).

<sup>5</sup>Barbara Jean Osborne, "An Historical Study of Physical Education in Germany and Its Influence in the United States" (unpublished Master's thesis, The Women's College of University of North Carolina, Greensboro, 1961).

<sup>6</sup>Delores Jean Wertz, "A Comparison of Physical Education in Germany and America from the Year 1860 to 1930" (unpublished Master's thesis, University of North Carolina, Greensboro, 1964).



there in 1960.<sup>7</sup> Nicholson attempted to reveal the effect of British tradition on physical education in Ghana following the latter's independence.<sup>8</sup> Certainly these are not all the studies of national systems of physical education but they are good examples of some different approaches that have been utilized.

### Regional Studies

Some studies have been undertaken to reveal the nature of physical education in several countries within a given region. The book, Physical Education in Europe, provides a brief summary of the four hundred page report that Howell and Van Vliet compiled for the Canadian government.<sup>9</sup> Suhm made a preliminary inquiry into the economic and social implications of mass leisure in Latin America.<sup>10</sup> Kenyon is presently undertaking a study of attitudes towards sport and physical activity in several different countries and Semotiuk has recently completed one section of this work by assessing the attitudes and interests of Edmonton secondary school students.<sup>11</sup>

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<sup>7</sup>J. S. Calvert, R. E. Morgan and C. Sayer, Physical Education and Sport in the Soviet Union (Leeds: The University of Leeds Institute of Education, 1961).

<sup>8</sup>Randolph R. Nicholson, "Physical Education and Sports in an Emergent Territory: Influences of British Tradition and Changes Following Independence" (unpublished Master's thesis, University of Alberta, Edmonton, 1966).

<sup>9</sup>M. L. Howell and M. L. Van Vliet, Physical Education and Recreation in Europe (Ottawa: Fitness and Amateur Sport Directorate, 1965).

<sup>10</sup>Lawrence L. Suhm, "Leisure in Latin America: A Preliminary Inquiry into the Economic and Social Implications of Mass Leisure in Underdeveloped Areas" (unpublished Doctoral thesis, University of Wisconsin, Madison, 1962).

<sup>11</sup>Darwin M. Semotiuk, "The Attitudes Toward and Interests in Physical Activity of Edmonton Secondary School Students (unpublished Master's thesis, University of Alberta, Edmonton, 1967).





The Council of Europe publications. The Council for Cultural Cooperation of the Council of Europe has produced a series of publications on "Education in Europe" which includes a section on "Out-of-school Education and Youth." During 1963 and 1964, a committee of representatives from each of the eighteen-member countries met to present information from their respective countries on this latter topic as well as to discuss common problems. The committee produced the following publications to provide data on physical education, sport, and recreation in the member countries: (1) Youth and Development Aid in 1963; (2) Physical Education and Sport: information and references in 1963; and (3) Training the Trainer in 1964.<sup>12</sup>

"Physical Education and Sport" is a valuable source book for anyone intending to do comparative research in physical education. Part I provides a brief outline of the structure and governing laws of public organizations concerned with physical education at the national, provincial and municipal levels. Other parts of the study deal with topics such as private organizations, training institutions for instructors, publications, and national and international sports organizations. The report does provide limited data on these agencies in each country but only a list is given "without any comments, in accordance with the principle adopted throughout the handbook."<sup>13</sup> Nevertheless, it is of considerable value to the researcher for it contains the names and

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<sup>12</sup>Council for Cultural Cooperation of the Council of Europe, Series III--Out-of-School Education: (1) Youth and Development Aid; (2) Physical Education and Sport; (3) Training the Trainer (Strasbourg, 1963-64).

<sup>13</sup>Ibid., III, 2, p. 21.



addresses of the prominent sports publications, physical education institutions, and national and international sports organizations in each member country. These are excellent contacts for securing further information about physical education and physical recreation in the eighteen countries which are members of the Council of Europe.

The objective of the book Training the Trainer was to present an outline of a programme of one hundred hours instruction which could be used in all member countries for training part-time recreation and sports leaders.<sup>14</sup> This publication is merely a basic outline and unfortunately does not provide the amount of detail required to make it a valuable training manual. Some quotations from a review by Burrows in Comparative Education seem to aptly sum up the difficulties:<sup>15</sup>

In 'Training the Trainer', the aim was to bring new ideas, new techniques and new achievements discovered in one member country in the field of education to the attention of all. In meeting this aim, one must confess at the outset that the result has been most disappointing. . . .What is offered is no more than a highly superficial commentary which is hardly calculated to be of any real assistance to the ambitious young teacher. . . .What a pity it was that the splendid intentions of the publication should begin so well and yet peter out in such disappointing fashion.

### International Studies

The UNESCO study. In 1954, the General Conference of UNESCO authorized the Director General "to undertake, in collaboration with Member States and appropriate international organizations, studies tending to develop and improve the practice of sport for educational

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<sup>14</sup>Ibid., III, 3, p. 11.

<sup>15</sup>R. G. Burrows, "Book Review," Comparative Education, I:2 (March, 1965), p. 138.





purposes.<sup>16</sup> In 1956, UNESCO undertook a comparative study of "The Place of Sport in Education" that involved fourteen member-states which had shown interest.<sup>17</sup> Although several non-governmental organizations were contacted to contribute additional information to the study, only two, the International Association of Physical Education and Sports for Girls and Women (IAPESGW) and the International Labour Sports Committee (ILSC) were able to send in reports.<sup>18</sup> These supplied information about an additional sixteen countries.

The study plan consisted of a questionnaire of twenty-seven items under the following sub-headings: (a) General attitude towards the place of sport in education; (b) The practice of sport for educational purposes at schools and universities; and (c) The practice of sport for educational purposes outside the school or university.

The portion of the study undertaken by the IAPESGW and the ILSC utilized the same questionnaire but was placed in a separate section of the report. In the introduction, the committee stated that:

The study was conceived with the idea of provoking discussion and giving rise to further studies. An effort has frequently been made, accordingly, to bring out the essential ideas or facts and to set them out in the form of a kind of discussion between Member States without fear of emphasizing the contrasts and sharpening the debate.<sup>19</sup>

It does provide an interesting presentation of certain ideas and facts from each country and accomplishes the aim of creating interest.

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<sup>16</sup>The Place of Sport in Education--A Comparative Study (Paris: UNESCO Publications, 1956), Introduction.

<sup>17</sup>Ibid.

<sup>18</sup>Ibid.

<sup>19</sup>Ibid.



It identifies some of the goals of physical education in participating countries, discloses some common problems that have been experienced, and provides descriptions of some courses of action that have been undertaken to overcome them. The study's short length and the number of countries that were covered prevented it from giving a clear perspective of physical education in the schools of any one country. The designers of the study realized that they could not provide a composite analysis of each country so they selected twenty-seven questions to focus on. Before further studies of this type are carried out, it appears that an evaluation of this first one might provide fruitful information to guide researchers in future endeavors.

In the first place, the use of a questionnaire technique automatically places several limitations on this study. Questionnaires are widely used by educational researchers "to obtain facts about current conditions and practices, and to make inquiries concerning attitudes and opinions."<sup>20</sup> They must, however, be handled skilfully to provide reliable data which, in turn, must be correctly interpreted in an unbiased manner.

To a large extent the quality of the questions influence the value of the study. The questions should be structured in clear, simple language and should focus on the crucial issues of the topic being investigated.<sup>21</sup> Often questions are ambiguous or they may be subject to a

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<sup>20</sup>Deobold B. Van Dalen, Understanding Educational Research (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1962), p. 254.

<sup>21</sup>Ibid., p. 257.





variety of interpretations by different respondents. There is a tendency to select questions to draw information about things known to exist in each of the countries and as a result aspects which are peculiar to only one or two countries may be overlooked. Unknowingly, some questions may be biased to elicit replies to support the researcher's beliefs.<sup>22</sup> The directions accompanying the questionnaire must be clear and precise. The fact that some countries supplied plentiful documentation while others reported with strict conciseness<sup>23</sup> may be due to ambiguity or lack of detail in the instructions accompanying the questionnaire.

Another important factor in using questionnaire techniques is the selection of subjects to answer the questions. Some respondents are not free, willing, or qualified to divulge the information required for accurate answers.<sup>24</sup> Some may fail to give thoughtful consideration to their answers or may falsify their replies to conform to their personal biases, to present a more favorable picture, or to conform to socially accepted patterns.<sup>25</sup> Sometimes, statements based on official regulations do not conform to the actual practice carried out. The report states that:

Team sports are practised, predominantly, in school clubs, out of school hours but under school supervision. This, in varying degrees, is the situation, in particular, in Australia, Austria, Ceylon, Hungary, India, Italy, New Zealand, Poland, and Sweden. Canada, on the other hand, states that the school does not assume responsibility for these activities.<sup>26</sup>

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<sup>22</sup>Ibid., p. 258.      <sup>23</sup>The Place of Sport, Introduction.

<sup>24</sup>Van Dalen, op. cit., p. 254.      <sup>25</sup>Ibid.

<sup>26</sup>The Place of Sport, p. 6.



Contrary to this statement, the schools in Canada are very active in promoting extracurricular team and individual competition in many sports. Although the schools may not assume official responsibility for these activities, thousands of Canadian physical educators will support the fact that they are very much a part of the school program and take up many hours of the teacher's time. Therefore, the statement in this report gives the reader an incorrect impression of the extracurricular sports program in Canadian schools. The quotation also uses the expression "in varying degrees" and this raises another problem with regard to the questionnaire technique. Questions most often imply a 'yes' or 'no' answer and it is difficult to gain an impression of the degree of emphasis on a particular practice in different countries. Undoubtedly the promotion of team sports in after-school hours receives a great deal more attention in some of the countries than in others but the report does not make provision for indicating these differences in emphasis.

The UNESCO study provides some interesting comments on a variety of questions related to the place of sport in education but generally it fails to provide the scope and detail that is necessary to fully understand the topic and the problems encountered in each of the countries investigated. Nevertheless, it does provide a useful starting point for the more detailed studies which are required before an adequate understanding of the function of sport in education will be available.

The ICHPER surveys. In 1963, ICHPER conducted three surveys involving some forty-eight countries. The topics investigated were: (1) Physical Education and Games in the Curriculum; (2) Teacher Training





for Physical Education; and (3) Status of Teachers of Physical Education.

"The project resulted from concern expressed by UNESCO and the World Confederation of Organizations of the Teaching Profession (WCOTP) that comparative studies be made of the physical education curriculums in the various countries of the world."<sup>27</sup> The study does reveal some interesting facts but because of its scope in dealing with forty-eight countries, it is unable to provide the depth of information required to explain the reasons for similarities and differences between the different countries surveyed. Because of this lack of depth, one must accept with caution the researchers' claim that the reports "serve well as a basis for study and comparison."<sup>28</sup> The reports do provide an outline of descriptive facts but the need now is for researchers who can add to this body of facts, isolate their attention to one or two countries, and explain, analyse, and compare them in great detail. The researchers in this study hoped that it would improve and enrich the programs of physical education for children and youth everywhere by presenting "information which will help countries decide what portion of their programs should evolve from their particular culture and which activities can be appropriately adapted."<sup>29</sup> Before such decisions for program development and change are made, however, additional information about the countries involved must be available. For example, it

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<sup>27</sup>Physical Education and Games in the Curriculum (Strasbourg: ICHPER, 1963), Foreword III.

<sup>28</sup>Ibid.

<sup>29</sup>Ibid.



would be necessary to expand on the limited detail of these reports and to assess the relevance of the differences in the natural environments and the sociocultural contexts.

The surveys were carried out by sending questionnaires to key individuals in each country. Thus, they suffer from many of the limitations imposed by the questionnaire technique. They were sent to only one key person in each country and it is doubtful that the opinions of a single respondent can provide an accurate and unbiased picture of physical education in that country. The use of tables which employ 'yes' or 'no' answers results in a lack of information of the degrees of development in each country with regard to topics such as examinations, the syllabus, and quantity and quality of facilities. The listing of the activities in the physical education program at each school level provides no indication of the degree of emphasis on each of the activities presented. According to the report, many countries have nearly the same program of activities, but in reality their programs become quite distinctive because of the emphasis they place on particular items in the list. Therefore, it is difficult, in these reports, to gain insights into the quantity or the quality of the work devoted to each aspect of the program outlined. In addition, there is little or no information concerning the methods used to present activities to the students although it seems likely that different methods of instruction may give an activity the distinctive characteristics which make it typical of a certain area.

The preceding comments are not intended to detract from the





valuable contributions made by these initial ICHPER surveys. The three booklets have done much to stimulate interest in comparative study and the research committee has made tremendous steps towards improving communication between the various countries. Rather, the comments are made to indicate many of the problems which have been encountered and to provide a clear perspective of certain difficulties that the designers of future studies should overcome. In the future, more sophisticated research is needed to provide sufficient amounts of reliable information to permit the pragmatic use of data in planning for the future.

The preceding paragraphs provide a brief evaluation of some of the comparative research that has been carried out thus far. Most of the work has been surveys which have covered a large number of countries and as a result have sacrificed detailed examination of physical education in the culture of any one area. It is perhaps beneficial that such overviews have been made for they provide a broad perspective of the area which requires more rigorous examination. Certainly the future techniques of research must be improved and expanded in many ways. The study of any aspect of culture or society is not a simple task. Culture and society are extremely complex phenomena, particular as they have developed in the modern nations of today. Rigorous and systematic research based on sound theoretical constructs is necessary before any degree of mature understanding can occur. These early efforts have served to create interest and to highlight some of the problems of further research. The challenge now is to outline some concepts which will provide clarity with regard to the purposes and nature of more





sophisticated research, its values for the field of physical education, and some ways in which better research may be carried out.

## II. THE PURPOSES AND MERITS OF COMPARATIVE PHYSICAL EDUCATION

### The Purposes

Any new field of study benefits by endeavouring to formulate its purposes which can serve as a guideline for research and for the gradual development of the field itself. It is essential, however, that these purposes be stated very generally so that they contain an element of flexibility which can accommodate new knowledge and changes of emphasis with the passage of time. Comparative physical education is a very young discipline and as yet has no official organization which can bring scholars together to exchange views and discuss general purposes. Certainly when this occurs considerable debate will precede any decisions as to the purposes of comparative physical education and in all likelihood only very general statements will receive any form of unanimous support. The statement of purposes which follows represents only one point of view. It is intended to stimulate discussion which will bring out other viewpoints rather than solicit support for what may be a narrow and biased perspective.

The proposed purposes of comparative physical education are:

(1) to carry out a systematic study of physical education as it has evolved in the cultures of all nations in order to discover and describe the similarities and differences among nations in this aspect of culture and society; (2) to explain the reasons for these similarities and



differences by delving into the historical development of physical education and assessing its continuous interrelationships with the natural environment and all other aspects of culture and society; (3) to increase the understanding of why and how various solutions have been attempted to solve problems which are common to several countries, and to evaluate the relative success of these attempts and their relevance for solving similar problems in the researcher's own country; and (4) to attempt to provide a better knowledge and a clearer understanding of the role of physical education in culture and society.<sup>30</sup>

#### The Merits of Comparative Physical Education

Physical education is a very diverse field and, as mentioned previously, is comprised of certain portions of a number of related disciplines.<sup>31</sup> Whether justified or not, physical educators have, on occasion, been accused of doing research which may have been done more appropriately by the related field. It is doubtful that comparative physical education will infringe on and duplicate the work being done in the related fields of comparative education, cultural anthropology, and sociology as they have not yet focused attention to any great extent on the study of physical education.

Comparative physical education is a relatively new subject in the

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<sup>30</sup>These purposes have been adapted and expanded from those presented for comparative education by Vernon Mallinson in An Introduction to the Study of Comparative Education (London: Heinemann, 1960).

<sup>31</sup>Henry, op. cit., p. 2.





field of physical education. It seems necessary, therefore, to justify further research in comparative studies by illustrating some of the valuable contributions they can make in the future development of the total field.

Comparative physical education can be justified for its academic merit alone, knowledge for its own sake and for the intellectual development of the individuals who study it. Henry points out that "our professional concern has tended to center on what physical education can do for people rather than the development of a field of knowledge."<sup>32</sup> It is quite possible that the ability of physical educators to do things for people has been seriously limited by the inadequate development of this body of knowledge. This fault has been commented on by many other leaders in the field. Van Dalen, et al., indicate that a body of knowledge is accumulating rapidly through increased specialization and "although such specialization is desirable and productive, it must accompany the general survey, which furnishes a sound educational perspective of the whole subject."<sup>33</sup> Comparative studies of physical education can make a valuable contribution to the accumulation of a body of knowledge which provides a perspective of the development and present status of the whole field.

Van Dalen, et al., also pose a difficult challenge to the physical education professional:

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<sup>32</sup>Henry, op. cit., p. 1.

<sup>33</sup>Van Dalen et al., op. cit., Preface, v.





Every physical educational teacher today, in the performance of his professional duties, must face the responsibility of reflecting critically upon the shifting patterns of life's activities. He must evaluate the adequacy of his curricular contributions in preparing the total competence of youth to adjust to a dynamic society. He must formulate, analyse, and order educational outcomes; provide criteria for critical judgements of existing practices and conditions, and construct procedures for educational improvements. The fitness of his final choice rests, first upon the depth and breadth of his understanding of educational history and philosophy, and secondly, upon his ability to analyse changes in cultural patterns.<sup>34</sup>

Most physical educators, particularly those teaching in elementary and secondary schools, are so involved in their own programs that they have little time to reflect on such issues. Idealistically these may be worthy goals but in reality they are seldom approached. It seems unreasonable to imply that the practitioner both has the time and the abilities to be able to "analyse changes in cultural patterns." Cultural anthropologists have certainly made us aware of the complexity of culture and its dynamic nature. The adequate analysis of the role and interrelationships of physical education in culture requires precise and detailed research by well-trained personnel. Such specialists could then make available the details and conclusions of their research to the practitioner who determines how it will influence his judgements of present conditions and his thinking for the future.

With the increased emphasis on specialization in recent years, physical educators, particularly at the higher education level, have tended to devote most of their energies to a certain aspect of the field.

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<sup>34</sup>Ibid., p. 1.



Consequently some degree of isolation tends to occur. When this has not been overcome by improved communication it may result in the narrowing of one's perspective of the field. The comparative scholar can perform a useful function by describing existing practices and conditions, explaining the influences behind their development, and providing some criteria for critical judgements through comparisons with other systems. As a background to this overview of the progress of the field he should also analyse the general changes in cultural patterns and their significance for the profession. Publications of this information in both detailed and concise form would provide other specialists with a clearer perspective of the status and development of the entire field and a better concept of the relationship of their own contributions to the whole.

Previous descriptions of the function of the comparative specialist in physical education imply that he is going to be very much concerned with his own country. It is true that one studies foreign systems not only to understand other peoples but also to know oneself.<sup>35</sup> Michael Sadler, the pioneer of modern methods in comparative education, realized this in 1900 when he wrote, "The practical value of studying, in a right spirit and with scholarly accuracy the working of foreign systems of education is that it will result in our being better fitted to study and to understand our own."<sup>36</sup> The student who is studying the system of a

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<sup>35</sup>George Z. F. Bereday, Comparative Method in Education (New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Inc., 1964), p. 6.

<sup>36</sup>J. H. Higginson, "The Centenary of an English Pioneer in Comparative Education," International Review of Education, VII (1961-62), p. 291.





foreign country automatically draws comparisons to his own and thus becomes more aware of what it is like. Most physical education departments include some courses in the foundations of physical education in their curricula in order to stimulate students to develop or acquire a professional attitude and philosophy. Many graduate curricula include a compulsory seminar to discuss philosophy and current problems in the field. In each case, comparative studies could increase the interest and value of the courses. Students should be encouraged to develop and test their own philosophies rather than accept without question the recognized philosophies of the time or of their particular cultural area. Kandel feels that if comparative work is properly approached it deals with fundamental principles and fosters the acquisition of a philosophic attitude.<sup>37</sup> The student who is required to look at the philosophies of other countries becomes better aware of his own. When the principles advocated by his own system are challenged by the different views of another country he will be required to make a value judgement as to which is the better, or try to synthesize the two to get the best combination. The same process will occur if a comparative approach is adopted for the discussion of current problems. To study how other countries have approached their problems, and the degree of success they have had, may stimulate thinking toward the solving of current problems in the student's own country. At the least, it will make him more clearly aware of what the current problems of the field are. It is evident that comparative studies do have an important role to play in the education of

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<sup>37</sup>Kandel, The New Era, op. cit., p. 12.





students in the field of physical education.

Modern technology has made it possible for man to have increased leisure time and has also facilitated inter-cultural exchange. Both these factors have contributed to the rapid increase in the number and variety of international competitions in sports. Some people feel that sport "has become a war without employing the tools of war,"<sup>38</sup> while others are firmly convinced of its value in promoting international friendships and understanding. If one is a regular reader of the sports page he becomes aware that there are some examples of each. The value of success in international sport for national prestige has resulted in increased political influence and financial support for sport in recent years.<sup>39</sup> Many of the emerging nations are promoting sport as a means of improving their national image.<sup>40</sup> Unfortunately, the ideal of promoting international friendship through sport sometimes fades amidst hotly contested disputes over such questions as amateurism, rules, officiating, and sportsmanship. Incidents do occasionally happen but in many cases they are, as Noel-Baker writes, "primarily due not to the competitors, but to some outside influence, not seldom a malevolent section of the press."<sup>41</sup> In some cases, these misunderstandings are the result of ignorance of the nature and traditions of sport in the countries

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<sup>38</sup>Henry W. Morton, Soviet Sport: Mirror of Soviet Society (New York: Collier Books, 1963), p. 82.

<sup>39</sup>Molyneux, op. cit.

<sup>40</sup>Nicholson, op. cit.

<sup>41</sup>Philip Noel-Baker, "Sport and International Understanding," The Royal Canadian Legion's Coaching Review, IV:4 (March, 1967), p. 2.



involved. The criticisms that European sports' writers and fans direct at the hard "body-checking" employed by Canadian hockey teams touring Europe is a good example. Few of the critics are aware of the rule differences between International and Canadian hockey which influence the strategy of Canadian teams. This lack of knowledge of sport in other lands is displayed not only by those persons concerned with the dispute but the spectators and press as well. Moehlman points out that, "It is essential to recognize that contact and interchange of cultures, or acculturation, must proceed on the basis of understanding, tolerance, and patience."<sup>42</sup> So too must the interrelationships that evolve as a result of international competition. Comparative studies written on a more popular level can provide a fund of literature, whether in books, newspapers, or periodicals, about sport in other countries.<sup>43</sup> If properly presented, then, comparative studies can make very interesting reading and may improve public understanding and appreciation of the differences in other systems. It may also stimulate a greater appreciation of the value of sport and physical recreation in culture as a whole.

Cultural and social change seem to be an inevitable fact in man's existence. Sometimes these changes are due to natural factors over which man has no control but in others, man is an active agent who can determine the rate and direction of the process of change. In today's

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<sup>42</sup>Arthur Moehlman, Comparative Education Systems (Washington: Center for Applied Research in Education, 1963), p. 1.

<sup>43</sup>Morton, op. cit., is a good example.





society, the planning of changes has become increasingly acceptable and desirable. Many people in physical education play active roles as change agents although in some cases they may not be consciously aware of this role. It is important that the decisions which stimulate changes in the field be made after careful deliberation and not merely on the basis of whim and fancy. Comparative studies can perform a useful service by providing accurate background information for those persons who have the responsibility for making these decisions.<sup>44</sup> First of all, comparative studies of the different stages in the historical development of the organization or institution under consideration illustrate the changes which have already occurred and may reveal certain trends in the process of change. Thus, the administrator can select courses of action which do not unduly disrupt the normal functioning of the organization and make adaptation to the new features quite easy. Second, studies can provide accurate knowledge of the achievements and mistakes of other systems and how they have handled similar problems. Appraisals could then be made of these other ideas in the light of the different context, and may result in fruitful adaptation and innovation. Certainly, the exposure to the structure and function of other systems assists in clarifying the problems of one's own country and should stimulate thinking towards the solution of such problems.

The preceding presentation of some of the merits of comparative studies in physical education must be accepted with a certain element of caution. The value of any comparative study, whether it is used for educational purposes or as a basis for change, is determined by the

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<sup>44</sup>It is not proposed to elaborate on this important topic in this thesis.





depth and accuracy of the research carried out. Each study must attempt to assess all the factors which are relevant for the structure and function of the phenomena being investigated. The analysis of the descriptive data should utilize the most effective techniques at the researcher's disposal and should be based on sound theoretical concepts. If attention is focused on the comparative study of national systems of physical education and physical recreation one might ask, "What are the relevant factors in the structure and function of such systems?" and "On the basis of what theoretical concepts should analysis be carried out?" The chapters which follow give further consideration to these difficulties.



## CHAPTER III

### THE COMPARATIVE APPROACH TO RESEARCH

#### I. THE NATURE OF COMPARATIVE STUDIES IN PHYSICAL EDUCATION

It would be difficult, at this time, to state exactly what the nature of comparative study in physical education is. This will become more apparent as the field develops and as attention is given to both theoretical concepts and methodological approaches. It is possible, though, to give some consideration to certain factors which will be involved in structuring different methods of research.

##### The Scope of Studies

With each empirical study it is necessary to delimit in some way the scope of the investigation. A common approach in other comparative fields is to select specific geographic areas such as Great Britain or South America. Generally the areas chosen fall within political boundaries. Although many cultural features ignore such boundaries, the organizations associated with physical education and physical recreation tend to be structured so as to operate within the boundaries of political units. Area studies, as these are often called, may focus on a bloc of countries such as Scandinavia, or on national, provincial, district, or local units. The smaller the area, the more specific and detailed the investigation tends to be.

A second method of limiting the breadth that a study is to cover





is to focus on a certain level or on a particular organization. It would be useful to look at physical education at certain school or grade levels, or to survey topics such as national sports organizations, professional preparation programs, and public recreation.

Bereday recommends the "problem approach" to provide an even narrower scope and to give beginning researchers an opportunity to employ the techniques of comparative research on a small scale.<sup>1</sup> One topic or theme is selected and examined in a number of countries. The ICHPER report on the "Status of Teachers of Physical Education,"<sup>2</sup> and Molyneux's study of "Central Government Aid to Sport and Physical Recreation in Countries of Western Europe,"<sup>3</sup> are examples of this approach. The range of topics which can be dealt with by a problem approach is unlimited and such information could be of significant value in solving certain problems in the field. With experience, the researcher can gradually increase the scope of his problem area until he reaches the point where he feels confident in attempting a total analysis of a country. In making the decision as to the scope of the study, the researcher will be influenced by his interests and experience, and, by the type of information that he requires to adequately cover

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<sup>1</sup>George Z. F. Bereday, Comparative Method in Education (New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Inc., 1964), p. 23.

<sup>2</sup>Status of Teachers of Physical Education (Washington: ICHPER, 1963).

<sup>3</sup>D. D. Molyneux, Central Government Aid to Sport and Physical Recreation in Countries of Western Europe (University of Birmingham: Physical Education Department, 1962).



his topic.

### Stages of Comparative Research

Regardless of its scope or the particular methods that are employed, each comparative study seems to pass through a number of steps or phases. The important first task in comparative research is to provide descriptive data. Some care must be taken to ensure that the data which is collected is relevant to the topic and that all the data required for an adequate analysis has been located. In addition to describing the organizational structures under study and their functions, it is necessary to identify and describe the relevant factors in the cultural context which interact with them. Kandel refers to descriptive analyses as "valuable provided that they are accurate and written with a knowledge and insight into the forces that give them meaning, and they provide the materials for comparative education without themselves being entitled to be called by that name."<sup>4</sup> Although description is essential, the implication here is that it is merely the first step in comparative research.

It is important not only to "learn about" or describe another system, but, also to endeavor to "study into" or explain the reasons for its character and the ways in which it functions.<sup>5</sup> This process of explanation involves the interpretation of information and consists of

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<sup>4</sup>I. K. Kandel, The New Era in Education--A Comparative Study (New York: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1955), pp. 8-9.

<sup>5</sup>I. K. Kandel, "The Methodology of Comparative Education," p. 271.





subjecting descriptive data to analyses which use the techniques of other social sciences<sup>6</sup> such as cultural anthropology, sociology, and social psychology. Without such analyses, true understanding of the structure and function of any aspect of a system can never occur.

Even though the preceding steps of description and explanation are carried out, it does not necessarily mean that it is a comparative study. Comparison implies that two or more things are compared and it is not adequate to merely list the analysis of one country after another. A true comparative approach involves juxtaposition; a process by which materials related to a particular aspect in each of the countries are brought together and viewed simultaneously. Comparison, then, is the final analysis which presents this data in an orderly and inter-related manner, that highlights the similarities and differences, and comments on the reasons for them.<sup>7</sup>

#### The Researcher's Background and Interests

Each of the phases in the comparative process is coloured by the researcher's personal background and interests. In the descriptive phase this factor often influences what is selected as being the relevant data. It also governs the choice of techniques and theoretical concepts which are employed to carry out explanation and analysis. For example, the historian would employ historical techniques and theories in his search back into history to discover and explain how certain events and personalities have been significant in the development of the

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<sup>6</sup>Bereday, op. cit., p. 19.

<sup>7</sup>Ibid., p. 22.





organizations under study. Similarly, the geographer would pay close attention to the effect of physical environment, the cultural anthropologist to aspects of the cultural context, and the sociologist to the social environment. Each specialist approaches comparative research with certain biases for the type of data he requires and for the way he intends to analyse and present this data. As a result, several different approaches to comparative study are possible and each has particular strengths and weaknesses.

### Interdisciplinary Approach

In the past, the various disciplines which make up the behavioral and social sciences have tended to maintain their autonomy. Each established boundaries for its areas of investigation and developed its own approaches to research. In many cases the boundaries overlapped and this compartmentalized approach to research tended to segment complex phenomena into unnatural divisions. This prevented any one discipline from adequately investigating the subject of study. The application of the knowledge and techniques of several of these disciplines is necessary before any significant understanding of social and cultural phenomena can occur. Thus, it was a logical step to introduce interdisciplinary research in order to more realistically study complex behavioral and social phenomena. This approach to research has been utilized a great deal more in recent years.

Comparative research is particularly suited to an interdisciplinary approach, either through the cooperative efforts of researchers in several disciplines or the eclectic use of concepts and methods from



several fields by a single researcher. The latter is much more difficult to do successfully because of the depth of knowledge that must be mastered in each area before good research can be accomplished. The comparative researcher tends to utilize the concepts and methods of other disciplines such as history, cultural anthropology, and sociology to gather and analyse his data. His unique contribution is the way in which he is able to organize this data from several areas into fruitful comparisons which reveal interesting similarities and differences. Such comparisons are more valid if the information compared has been obtained by refined techniques of research. Thus, the introduction of interdisciplinary cooperation has made valuable contributions to the sophistication and accuracy of comparative research.

Comparative physical education can benefit to some extent from the development of extensive interdisciplinary cooperation in research. Within the field of physical education itself, the foundation subjects of philosophy, history, cultural anthropology, and sport sociology can all make significant contributions to comparative study. Efforts must be made to encourage cooperation so that scholars become aware of the ways in which such cooperative research can result in a better understanding of the various aspects of physical education. Comparative physical educators must also cultivate relationships with other comparative disciplines, particularly education, and the fields of cultural anthropology and sociology. Valuable background data, theoretical concepts and methods can be gained from these more mature disciplines. In time, research in physical education may fill some of the gaps in





the work that these other fields have carried out. Certainly, the encouragement of interdisciplinary research will assist the subject of comparative physical education to enjoy earlier success and allow it to contribute more valuable information to the field.

## II. SOME APPROACHES USED IN COMPARATIVE EDUCATION

Comparative education is considered by many of its scholars to be a very young discipline. Clearly defined methodology has not yet evolved although many researchers are presently devoting much of their attention to this problem.<sup>8</sup> Thus, it is possible to identify certain basic directions that different scholars propose for the development of methodology in the field. It appears likely that a survey of the various approaches proposed by comparative educators may provide some insights which are relevant for the development of conceptual frameworks for the comparative study of physical education. The two fields are similar in that they both apply knowledge from several other basic disciplines like anthropology, sociology, history, economics and politics to study a specific aspect of culture and society. Comparative education has identified the types of relevant factors which interact with the education system to influence its structure and functioning.<sup>9</sup> Some researchers have developed classification schemes to treat these

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<sup>8</sup>I. K. Kandel, "Problems of Comparative Education," International Review of Education, II (1956), pp. 9-11; and B. Holmes, S. B. Robinsohn, Relevant Data in Comparative Education (Hamburg: UNESCO Institute for Education, 1963), a report on an expert meeting, March 11-16, 1963.

<sup>9</sup>Holmes and Robinsohn, op. cit.



outside influences, to analyse the educational systems themselves, and to show how they, in turn, have an effect on the other systems with which they interact.<sup>10</sup> A brief history of the early development of comparative education is presented in order to reveal the close similarity with developments in physical education. Then, the main approaches to comparative education are reviewed. Because of the close similarities between education and physical education this review may provide some useful information and some frameworks which will assist in the development of a conceptual structure in comparative physical education.

#### The Work of Administrators in the Nineteenth Century

In 1816, Marc-Antoine Julien published a plan indicating several proposals for the establishment of systematic methods to facilitate the comparative study of education in the countries of Europe.<sup>11</sup> Unfortunately, the educators of the time did not take heed of Julien's sound advice and as a result comparative education did not really begin its development as an organized discipline until the beginning of the twentieth century. Nevertheless, throughout the nineteenth century, many educational administrators utilized unstructured forms of comparison to gain new ideas for the solution of educational problems in their own country. In France, Victor Cousin based his arguments for the compulsory

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<sup>10</sup> Bereday, op. cit., pp. 20, 28; Arthur Moehlman, Comparative Education Systems (Washington: Center for Applied Research in Education, 1963), pp. 82-105; and Holmes and Robinson, op. cit., pp. 42-88.

<sup>11</sup> Stewart Fraser, Julien's Plan for Comparative Education--1816-1817 (New York: Bureau of Publications, Teacher's College, Columbia University, 1964).





education of all children on examples from Holland and Germany.<sup>12</sup> Many American educators took time off from their duties to travel through European countries to gain impressions of their education systems. In 1819, John Griscom published his observations in "Year in Europe."<sup>13</sup> Calvin Stowe made a thorough study of school systems in Europe which culminated in two publications in 1837.<sup>14</sup> Horace Mann's famous seventh report summarizes his observations of educational institutions he visited on a trip to Europe in 1843.<sup>15</sup> In England, Sir James Phillips Kay-Shuttleworth travelled to Europe to get ideas for the professional training of teachers.<sup>16</sup> On three occasions, Matthew Arnold was appointed to commissions whose tasks were to study education in selected European countries. He made detailed reports in government "Blue Books" as well as in his personal publications.<sup>17</sup> In all cases, these administrators based their reports on their own subjective observations and opinions of the formal educational institutions in the countries visited. Little

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<sup>12</sup>Paul Monroe (ed.), A Cyclopedia of Education, Volume II (1919), pp. 224-225.

<sup>13</sup>Ibid., Vol. III (1918), p. 184.      <sup>14</sup>Ibid., Vol. V (1919), p. 148.

<sup>15</sup>Lawrence A. Cremin (ed.), The Republic and the School (New York: Bureau of Publications, Teacher's College, Columbia University, 1960), p. 54; B. A. Hinedale, Horace Mann and the Common School Revival in the United States (New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1900), pp. 170-73; and Albert E. Winship, Horace Mann--The Educator (Boston: New England Publishing Company, 1896), pp. 50-52.

<sup>16</sup>Monroe, op. cit., Vol. III (1918), pp. 587-88.

<sup>17</sup>Sir Joshua Fitch, Thomas and Matthew Arnold--and Their Influence on English Education (New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1897), pp. 158-230.





concern was given to other institutions in the culture which may have had either direct or indirect influences on the educational process. In most cases, the focus of attention was entirely on the educational administration, facilities and programs.

In the past, there have been several examples of administrators journeying to other countries to study the system of physical education or to promote their own system of physical education in those countries. For example, Per Henrik Ling, the prominent leader in Swedish physical education, first became acquainted with Nachtegall's version of Guts Muths' system of gymnastics while he was a student in Copenhagen.<sup>18</sup> He also made summer travels to Germany, France, and England to further increase his knowledge of physical education in these countries.<sup>19</sup> Ling returned to Sweden and over a number of years gradually developed what became known as the "Ling system." This system was, in turn, taken to England by men like Indebetou, Ehrenoff and Georgii, and to the United states by Nissen and Posse.<sup>20</sup> This serves to illustrate one of the ways in which administrators played a role in the spread of practices in physical education from one country to another.

#### The Basis for Modern Methods

Comparative educators are indebted to Sir Michael Sadler for drawing attention to the weaknesses of the traditional approach to

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<sup>18</sup>Deobold B. Van Dalen, Elmer D. Mitchell and Bruce L. Bennett, A World History of Physical Education: Cultural-Philosophical-Comparative (Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1953), p. 245.

<sup>19</sup>Emmett A. Rice, John L. Hutchinson, and Mabel Lee, A Brief History of Physical Education (New York: Ronald Press Co., 1958), p. 110.



comparative study. At the turn of the century, he established certain principles which have been the cornerstone of the theoretical orientation of the field during the twentieth century.<sup>21</sup> Sadler was able to take the studies made by administrators preceding him and "systematize and extend them with sociological insight and scientific accuracy."<sup>22</sup> Sadler stressed the fact that:

In studying foreign systems of Education we should not forget that the things outside the schools matter even more than the things inside the schools, and govern and interpret the things inside. We cannot wander at pleasure among the educational systems of the world, like a child strolling through a garden, and pick off a flower from one bush and some leaves from another and then expect that if we stick what we have gathered into the soil at home, we shall have a living plant. A national system of Education is a living thing, the outcome of forgotten struggles and difficulties, and 'of battles long ago'. It has in it some of the secret workings of national life. It reflects, while it seeks to remedy, the failings of the national character.<sup>23</sup>

As a result, he placed emphasis on the concept of national character as a methodological tool to explain educational ideas and practices.<sup>24</sup> Sadler recommended that researchers acquire a sound knowledge of the local educational scene so that they would be able to judge how well successful arrangements employed elsewhere would fit local conditions. He felt that there were often possibilities for adapting points of foreign systems to one's own use if they were "shed of their localizing

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<sup>21</sup>Andreas M. Kazamias, G. Byron Massialas, Tradition and Change in Education--A Comparative Study (Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall Inc., 1965), p. 3.

<sup>22</sup>J. H. Higginson, "The Centenary of an English Pioneer in Comparative Education," International Review of Education, VII (1961-62), p. 287.

<sup>23</sup>Ibid., p. 290.      <sup>24</sup>Kazamias and Massialas, op. cit., p. 3.





context."<sup>25</sup>

In summary, Sadler's main contributions to methodology in comparative education were: (1) to point out the need to pay attention to the natural and sociocultural factors in the setting surrounding the educational system; (2) to have a sound knowledge of the local situation; and (3) to consider the surrounding contexts when adapting ideas from other systems.

### The Historical Approach

Kandel, Hans and Ulich are among the chief proponents of the historical approach to comparative education. Hans captures the essence of this method of research in the following explanation.

The historical approach tries to investigate the past causes of individual and group variations among religious or national communities. The differences of denominational attitudes, of national aspirations or of so-called 'national character' go deep into the past and sometimes subconsciously determine the present. Only historical investigation can bring them to the surface, illuminate their potency in the cultural lives of nations and make Comparative Education really educative.<sup>26</sup>

Both Kandel and Hans recommend historical studies of the national background and environmental forces which determine the character of the educational system.<sup>27</sup> Kandel foresees the need for interdisciplinary

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<sup>25</sup>Higginson, op. cit., pp. 288, 291.

<sup>26</sup>Nicholas Hans, "The Historical Approach to Comparative Education," International Review of Education, V (1959), p. 307.

<sup>27</sup>Kandel, "The Methodology of Comparative Education," p. 271; Nicholas Hans, Comparative Education (London: Routledge and Kegan Paul Limited, 1951), pp. 9-16.



cooperation to study these underlying sociologic, economic, technologic, political, and cultural factors.<sup>28</sup> Hans develops certain categories to be considered in the analysis and they are summarized briefly in the following outline:

1. Natural conditions. The natural conditions which influence national systems of education include: (a) racial factors, whether a pure race or a hybridisation of two or more races; (b) national language as the medium of social intercourse and an outward symbol of nationality, and whether the country is unilingual, bilingual, or multilingual; and (c) social and physical environment including economic conditions and occupational activities, and the geographic conditions of physiographic features and climate.

2. Religious traditions. Hans considers the religious traditions of humanity under four main groups: (a) Christianity, (b) Islam, (c) Hinduism, and (d) Oriental.

3. Secular movements. Hans recognizes three main movements of protest and reform: (a) humanism, the attempts to liberate the common people from deplorable conditions; (b) socialism, the protest against the economic exploitation of the masses by the ruling minority; and (c) nationalism, the natural expression of national character.

In summary, then, Hans would consider three definite groups of factors in his analysis: (1) Natural factors: (a) race, (b) language, and (c) environment; (2) Religious factors: (3) Secular movements: (a) humanism, (b) socialism, and (c) nationalism.<sup>29</sup>

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<sup>28</sup>Kandel, op. cit., p. 273.

<sup>29</sup>Hans, Comparative Education, pp.11-16.





Hans also recognizes the fact that education is a factor in the moulding of national character. Therefore, a cyclical process takes place in which factors of national character affect education, and education, in turn, has an influence on them.<sup>30</sup>

In covering the historical background upon which several education systems are based, Ulich employs historical analysis to show how education followed different paths as a result of national factors and characteristics. He then attempts to make generalizations to new nations.<sup>31</sup>

Lauwerys adopts a slightly different approach to comparative education by emphasizing the importance of understanding "national styles in philosophy." He feels that explanations based on the "national character" approach are too vague and too general.<sup>32</sup> He asserts that the education system and its aims are influenced by the philosophy in favor in the country at the time and so are the other systems which operate in the country. Therefore, an understanding of the basic underlying philosophy assists the researcher to become aware of the ideological climate which guides the decisions of educational policy-makers.<sup>33</sup>

The historical approach, based on Sadlerian principles, represents one of the earliest attempts to establish methodology for comparative

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<sup>30</sup>Ibid., p. 10.    <sup>31</sup>Kazamias and Massialis, op. cit., p. 2.

<sup>32</sup>Joseph A. Lauwerys, "The Philosophical Approach to Comparative Education," International Review of Education, V (1959), pp. 283-90.

<sup>33</sup>Ibid., pp. 293-94.





education in the twentieth century. The ideas surrounding the themes of "national character," and "national philosophy" are recognized today as an important aspect of comparative studies.<sup>34</sup>

Although the historical approach has proven adequate for assessing the effects of national character, it fails to distinguish between national characteristics and other group characteristics. Thus, it does not consider all the factors which interact with the education system.<sup>35</sup>

### Recent Trends in Comparative Education

The modern trends in comparative education represent an attempt to combine the benefits of the historical approach with the scientific advantages of the methods employed by social scientists in a number of fields. On the whole, there has been increasing emphasis on the need for interdisciplinary cooperation in research.<sup>36</sup> The stress on educational planning has created the need for a conceptual framework for comparative studies which not only assess the historical determinants but also analyse the present functioning of the educational system. With this type of research it may be possible to predict some of the problems which will face education in the future, thus enabling plans to be made in advance.<sup>37</sup>

Bereday establishes four phases for a comparative study: description, explanation, juxtaposition, and comparison.<sup>38</sup> In the explanation

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<sup>34</sup>Holmes and Robinsohn, op. cit., pp. 14-15.

<sup>35</sup>Kazamias and Massialas, op. cit., pp. 6-8.

<sup>36</sup>Holmes and Robinsohn, op. cit., p. 22. <sup>37</sup>Ibid., pp. 15-17.

<sup>38</sup>Bereday, op. cit., pp. 11-23.



phase he recommends an analysis of the pedagogical data available by the application of the methods of other social sciences. Bereday does not provide a precise set of categories to identify the relevant factors that should be considered in a social analysis but he does recommend that attention be paid to history, economics, philosophy, psychology, sociology, anthropology, political science, and science.<sup>39</sup>

Moehlman tends to be more specific in outlining categories to guide comparative research.. For the analysis of the education system itself he identifies the three major categories of orientation, organization, and operation. Under "orientation" he considers the factors of philosophy, law, and finance which give direction to the system. The "organization" mirrors the philosophy and is the general structure of the education system with its various levels and departments. The "operation" of the system involves students, teachers, curricula, methods of instruction, instructional materials, evaluation and testing, guidance, supervision and administration.<sup>40</sup> But Moehlman feels it is not enough to compare education systems on the basis of these three categories. He indicates the necessity of considering the interaction of "the long-range factors making up the various sectors of the nation's culture" with the education system. Moehlman sets out the following theoretical model for analysis:

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<sup>39</sup>Ibid., pp. 19-21.

<sup>40</sup>Moehlman, op. cit., pp. 82-93.





TABLE I  
LONG-RANGE FACTORS AFFECTING THE EDUCATION SYSTEM<sup>a</sup>

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FOLK--	Ethnic sources, quantity, quality, and age structure of population
SPACE--	Spatial concepts, territoriality, and natural features
TIME--	Temporal concepts, historical development and evolution of culture
LANGUAGE--	Symbols, message systems, and communication of conceptual thought
ART--	Aesthetics, search for beauty and play
PHILOSOPHY--	Value choices, pursuit of wisdom and the good life
RELIGION--	Relation of man and the universe, belief systems
SOCIAL STRUCTURE--	Family, kinship, sex, etiquette, and social classes
GOVERNMENT--	Ordering of human relations, governmental structures and operations
ECONOMICS--	Satisfaction of wants, exchange, production, and consumption
TECHNOLOGY--	Use of natural resources through machines, techniques, and power resources
SCIENCE--	The sphere of knowledge concerning both natural and human realms
HEALTH--	The condition of physical, mental, and emotional well-being, including functions of living
EDUCATION--	The social process of directed learning, both formal and informal

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<sup>a</sup>Arthur Moehlman, Comparative Education Systems (Washington: Center for Applied Research in Education, 1963), p. 9.

Moehlman states that "The impact of these long-range factors determines the profile of education." These factors tend to interact with each other and determine the efficiency of education, but, they are, in turn,



affected by the changes that occur in the educational pattern.<sup>41</sup>

Moehlman does attempt to provide a conceptual structure and his categories and long-range factors do facilitate the analysis of educational systems.

King and his colleagues in England are presently employing the computer to aid in the analysis of school developments. King recognizes the complicated dynamics of forces in the "ecological" situation (language, religion, race, sociology, economics, politics, psychology, and philosophy) which are constantly interacting with the education system to change it and be changed by it.<sup>42</sup> His plan is to feed myriads of observations about the education system and the other relevant systems into the computer which accelerates the calculations between the various factors. The results may reveal certain trends in education.<sup>43</sup> King's work is still in the embryonic stage and may be of greater value as it becomes better developed. The present difficulty is that only certain types of data are amenable to computer treatment and as a result the importance of ideological and behavioral components which cannot yet be quantified is not assessed.

Anderson is a strong supporter for the use of sociology in comparative education. He recognizes that sociology does not have a monopoly role to play but indicates certain directions in which it can

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<sup>41</sup>Ibid., p. 9.

<sup>42</sup>Edmund J. King, "The Purpose of Comparative Education," Comparative Education, 1:3 (June, 1965), pp. 150-51.

<sup>43</sup>Ibid., p. 152.





be useful.<sup>44</sup> Anderson states that:

In its broadest sense, comparative education might be defined as cross-cultural comparisons of the structure, operation, aims, methods and achievements of various educational systems, and the societal correlates of these educational systems and their elements.<sup>45</sup>

Based on this definition of comparative education, Anderson proposes that sociology can make potential contributions in the following areas: (1) the assessment of the function of education in maintaining societal cohesion such as finding a balance between national unity and the striving for international unity; (2) trying to assess the influence of public opinion in educational policy making; (3) analysis of accelerated change of certain aspects of culture; (4) investigating the relationships between education and the social status system; (5) studying "the molding of personality by social structure to discover the distinctive way in which education transmits selected aspects of culture"; (6) studying education as a profession; and (7) studying education as a bureaucracy.<sup>46</sup> Anderson also feels that sociological techniques such as the Nadel theory of co-variation can assist in the development of "typologies" of educational systems by identifying common fundamental features that are found in them all.<sup>47</sup> As shown earlier, sociology also helps display the relationships between various educational characteristics and associated sociological, economic, or other non-educational

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<sup>44</sup>C. Arnold Anderson, "Sociology in the Service of Comparative Education," International Review of Education, V (1959), p. 310.

<sup>45</sup>C. Arnold Anderson, "Methodology of Comparative Education," International Review of Education, VII (1961-62), p. 4.

<sup>46</sup>Anderson, "Sociology," pp. 311-18.      <sup>47</sup>Anderson, "Methodology," p. 7.





features.<sup>48</sup>

The theme of the expert meeting convened by the UNESCO Institute for Education, Hamburg, in March 1963, was "the need to identify and classify background data as they bear upon the formulation of policy and upon its outcomes."<sup>49</sup> During the conference, the twenty-four participants from fifteen countries presented and discussed a number of frameworks for classifying relevant data in three general areas: (1) description of the institutions of education; (2) causal explanation of educational systems in terms of important background factors; and (3) planning and the evaluation of educational success.<sup>50</sup> The results of the conference are aptly reported by Holmes and Robinsohn in a book which would prove valuable for anyone contemplating comparative studies in physical education.<sup>51</sup> Some of the frameworks, particularly those employed to describe institutions of education, appear to have application for studies in comparative physical education. They are produced in brief form here and will be explained more fully in the final chapter where they are applied to the physical education context.

Hilker presented the following framework for classifying the organization of the school system:

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<sup>48</sup>Holmes and Robinsohn, op. cit., pp. 11-19.

<sup>49</sup>Ibid., p. 11.      <sup>50</sup>Ibid., pp. 20-21.

<sup>51</sup>Ibid., complete text.



TABLE II  
CLASSIFICATION OF VERTICAL AND HORIZONTAL RELATIONSHIPS<sup>a</sup>

- 
- (a) Pre-school Education
  - (b) Education at the First Level
    - Stage I - Primary schools
  - (c) Education at the Second Level
    - Stage 2 - Upper section of elementary schools; Intermediate schools; lower section of high schools, grammar schools, gymnasiums.
    - Stage 3 - Upper section high schools, grammar schools, gymnasiums, teacher training, full-time and part-time vocational schools.
  - (d) Education at the Third Level
    - Stage 4 - Undergraduate colleges, advanced technical schools, lower stages of university study, teacher training
    - Stage 5 - Professional schools, higher stages of university study, teacher education.
  - (e) Education at the Fourth Level
    - Stage 6 - Postgraduate study.
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<sup>a</sup>B. Holmes, and S. B. Robinsohn, Relevant Data in Comparative Education (Hamburg: UNESCO Institute for Education, 1963), pp. 51, 57 (an adapted version).

For the comparison of schools, Hoz presented the following framework:





TABLE III

CLASSIFICATION OF DATA FOR THE COMPARISON OF SCHOOLS<sup>a</sup>

- 
- 
1. Origin and Evolution of the School
  2. Aims and Objectives
  3. Personnel
    - 3:1 Teachers
    - 3:2 Technicians
    - 3:3 Pupils
  4. Material Elements
    - 4:1 Buildings
    - 4:2 Equipment
    - 4:3 Teaching Materials
      - 4:3:a Books
      - 4:3:b Audio-Visual aids
  5. Organization
    - 5:1 Plan of work
    - 5:2 Curriculum and methods of teaching
    - 5:3 Guidance and Counselling
    - 5:4 Extra-curricular activities
    - 5:5 Control
  6. The School's Social Relations
    - 6:1 With the parents
    - 6:2 With community
  7. Educational Policy
  8. Budget-Economic Aspects
  9. Pertinent Legislation
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<sup>a</sup>B. Holmes and S. B. Robinsohn, Relevant Data in Comparative Education (Hamburg: UNESCO Institute for Education, 1963), p. 55.

Holmes lists several out-of-school activities and considers the



type of institutions that may be involved in promoting and conducting these. Of particular significance to physical educators is his first category of "Leisure Time Activities," which includes: (a) sport; and (b) cultural. The types of institutions involved in out-of-school activities that he considers are:

TABLE IV

INSTITUTIONS PROVIDING OPPORTUNITIES FOR OUT-OF-SCHOOL ACTIVITIES<sup>a</sup>

- 
- |    |                            |
|----|----------------------------|
| A. | Social/Cultural            |
| 1. | Family                     |
| 2. | Educational Institutions   |
| 3. | Parent Organizations       |
| 4. | Youth Movements            |
| 5. | Mass Media                 |
| 6. | Clubs                      |
| 7. | Former-Pupil Organizations |
| 8. | Religious Institutions     |
|    |                            |
| B. | Economic                   |
| 1. | Industrial Organizations   |
| 2. | Commerical Organizations   |
| 3. | Agricultural Organizations |
|    |                            |
| C. | Political                  |
| 1. | Political Institutions     |
- 

<sup>a</sup>B. Holmes and S. B. Robinsohn, Relevant Data in Comparative Education (Hamburg: UNESCO Institute for Education, 1963), p. 55.

Also included in the report is Moehlman's classification of long-range factors which was presented earlier in this section.<sup>52</sup>

The preceding paragraphs present an overview of certain trends in the methods of comparative education. In recent years there has been

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<sup>52</sup>Ibid., pp. 75-76.



greater emphasis on the development of classification systems and the application of techniques from related social sciences.<sup>53</sup> Much of the information presented here has relevance for comparative studies of physical education, in particular, and physical recreation. Most comparative educators recommend evaluation of the influence of other systems in the cultural and social context in which the education system functions. In addition to the Holmes and Robinsohn report, Bereday, Moehlman, and Hans provide classification schemes to guide analysis. Bereday, Moehlman, King, and Anderson all point to the value of employing the techniques for analysis that are available in the other social sciences. It seems quite probable that information of this nature can prove very helpful in stimulating more rapid development of mature methodology in comparative physical education.

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<sup>53</sup>Ibid., p. 12.





## CHAPTER IV

### SOME RELEVANT CONCEPTS FROM ANTHROPOLOGY AND SOCIOLOGY

#### I. SOME CONTRIBUTIONS FROM CULTURAL ANTHROPOLOGY

According to Stern and Jacobs:

Anthropology is the scientific study of the physical, social, and cultural development and behavior of human beings since their appearance on earth.

. . . . .  
It seeks (1) to describe phenomena of human life and culture accurately; (2) to classify the variable phenomena studied in order to achieve revealing general formulations; (3) to locate the origins of the changes and processes that are characteristic of such classified data and to describe those changes and processes accurately; and (4) to predict or indicate the general directions of change likely to be taken by the phenomena under examination.<sup>1</sup>

In other words, cultural anthropology is that specific branch of the field which attempts to describe, analyse, and explain the wide variety of customs and forms of social life of man.<sup>2</sup> In the past, anthropologists have not emphasized the development and extensive use of theoretical frameworks to the degree that many other social scientists have. Instead, they have tended to stress empirical observations which are not distorted by any preconceived concepts and inflexible methods.<sup>3</sup> However, there appears to be evidence of increasing use of

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<sup>1</sup>Bernhard Joseph Stern, and Melville Jacobs, Outline of Anthropology (New York: Barnes and Noble, 1947), pp. 1, 4-5.

<sup>2</sup>Ibid., p. 3.

<sup>3</sup>George D. Spindler, Education and Culture--Anthropological Approaches (New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1963), p. 5.



general theoretical frameworks to guide their study of man in different cultures and societies.<sup>4</sup> Increasingly, anthropologists appear to be making disciplined selections of concepts which seem to hold promise for selecting, organizing, explaining, and, in some instances, even predicting, cultural phenomena. Occasionally, they have been eclectic by utilizing generic concepts from kindred social sciences like psychology and sociology to try to bring intellectual order to the vast array of cultural facts which are increasingly becoming available to them. For example, particular generic concepts, such as "social system" and its family of interrelated concepts which have been taken from sociology, have proven useful in analysing certain social regularities. Similarly, certain constructs gleaned from personality theory, such as "reference group," have had pragmatic value in explaining behavioral phenomena.<sup>5</sup>

Cultural anthropology appears to provide certain useful concepts for the analysis of physical education as a cultural phenomena. Perhaps the most pertinent concept is the constellation of ideas which is denoted and connoted by the term "culture!" It is essential to have a grasp of the meaning of this term and to understand its relationships to both the natural and social environments. These basic anthropological concepts and their interrelationships must be mastered intellectually before the functioning of aspects of culture related to physical education can be analysed.

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<sup>4</sup>Pitiram A. Sorokin, Sociological Theories of Today (New York: Harper and Row, Publishers, 1966), pp. 635-49.

<sup>5</sup>Spindler, op. cit., pp. 6, 284-85.





### The Concept "Culture"

In defining "culture" Bidney says:

A culture consists of the acquired or cultivated behavior and thought of individuals within a society, as well as of the intellectual, artistic, and social ideals and institutions which the members of the society profess and to which they strive to conform.<sup>6</sup>

In elaborating on his definition of culture, Bidney combines the realist's and the idealist's positions and states that an adequate definition must include both. The realist views culture as the social heritage consisting of the body of material artifacts as well as non-material ideas, institutions, customs, and ideals which have been derived by both the assimilation of traditions and the creation and discovery of novelties by members of the present society. But, in the idealist sense, culture also has a normative, impersonal, ideational component which moulds thinking in social life and is a pervading, and often unconscious influence, on the nature of social behavior.<sup>7</sup> Seldom are the observable phenomena and idealistic aspects in complete congruence, as is frequently observed in physical education and other fields. This incongruence accounts for tensions between the professed ideals and beliefs of the society and the actual behavior observed. As Bidney indicates these tensions frequently are the source of cultural change and give culture its dynamic quality.<sup>8</sup> To summarize, in Bidney's words:

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<sup>6</sup>David Bidney, Theoretical Anthropology (New York: Columbia University Press, 1953), p. 30.

<sup>7</sup>Ibid., pp. 29-30.      <sup>8</sup>Ibid., p. 31.



Practical, real, or actual culture--the actual behavior and thought of men in society--is not intelligible apart from the social ideas which men have created or discovered for themselves and endeavor to realize in their daily lives.<sup>9</sup>

Sorokin adopts an idealist's position and divides culture into three levels: (1) Ideological, "the totality of meanings-values-norms possessed by individuals or groups"; (b) Behavioral, "the totality of their meaningful actions through which the pure meanings-values-norms are manifested and realized"; (3) Material, "the totality of all other vehicles, the material, biophysical things and energies through which their ideological culture is externalized, solidified, and socialized."<sup>10</sup> These views correspond somewhat with those of Bidney.

If one observes physical education in different cultures it is possible to see how these concepts of culture are analytically relevant. Each society has acquired or cultivated certain behaviors which are expressed by physical activities in the form of games, sports, recreational pastimes and so on. In the culture, many material artifacts such as stadia, playing fields, and equipment have been created. Man has developed many ideas, institutions, and customs associated with these aspects of his life and he has organized into social groups to promote such activities. He also attributes certain meanings to these physical activities and frequently is able to rationally explain attitudinal norms and value-orientations, which influence his observable behaviors. In many cases the ideals that he professes for physical activities and his

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<sup>9</sup>Ibid., p. 30.

<sup>10</sup>Sorokin, op. cit., p. 17.





actual practices differ and the tensions which result may lead to actions either to change the ideals or the exhibited behavior. In studying other cultures, then, it is just as important to assess the meanings, norms, and values that members of a particular culture hold for specific physical activities as it is to describe these observed activities and the associated social behaviors and artifacts used in conjunction with them. Knowing, therefore, the meanings attributed to particular activities in a particular culture provides an element of predictability with regard to problems which may arise, and to alternative directions of solutions which may be initiated by members of that particular culture. This element of control over some aspects of change is feasible because man, to some degree, is a self-conscious being, capable of examining, with some discipline over his own subjectivity, his own culture and its historical process of development. Thus, he is able to evaluate it in light of his experience and his idealistic aspirations, and then determine, within limits, the direction which cultural process should take.<sup>11</sup>

### The "Structure" of Culture

In order to facilitate the analysis of culture or aspects of culture, anthropologists have developed concepts which arbitrarily divide culture into component parts, thus giving it a theoretical structure. The ultimate units of social or cultural heritage are "cultural elements." These are the invented and transmitted units of culture which,

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<sup>11</sup>Bidney, op. cit., p. 31.





for particular purposes of description and theoretical treatment, need not be subjected to further sub-division.<sup>12</sup> In physical education, for example, cultural elements might include: artifacts such as balls and other apparatus, ideas about games and training, norms of behavior in the form of rules for games and competition, and values for fitness and sportsmanship, plus certain utopian ideals of excellence and perfection in physical performance.

These elements are never isolated units and always have identifiable interrelationships with other units.<sup>13</sup> "Culture complexes" are larger segments of the cultural phenomena and consist of patterns of related cultural elements.<sup>14</sup> These complexes are dynamic in that their elements sometimes change but the central concept and the patterns or integrative factors give them unity.<sup>15</sup> They vary in size and complexity of arrangement and may change according to the context. The combination of facilities, behavior, norms, values, and ideals of a particular skill or game, a community playground, sport club, or school physical education program represent different culture complexes.

Some anthropologists identify still larger units of cultural phenomena. These are interrelated culture complexes and are referred to by the concept "cultural system." It is possible to identify basic culture systems such as language, science, philosophy, religion, the fine arts, ethics, law, applied technology, economics and

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<sup>12</sup>Stern and Jacobs, op. cit., p. 112.    <sup>13</sup>Ibid., p. 113.

<sup>14</sup>Ibid., p. 114.

<sup>15</sup>Melville J. Herskovits, Cultural Dynamics (New York: Alfred A. Knopf, 1964), pp. 90,91.



politics.<sup>16</sup> Within the context of physical education one might classify for purposes of analysis, sports organizations, public and commercial recreation, and university physical education departments as culture systems. These major aspects of culture, the basic culture systems, will be given further consideration later in this chapter.

Some researchers have also classified integrating features of technology and material culture along with features of economic, social, and artistic life into larger conceptual units termed "culture areas,"<sup>17</sup> the geographic regions in which these integrated features are found. It is also useful at times to view the whole world as a culture and study the interrelationships between the various cultures of which it is comprised.

This hierarchical arrangement of elements, complexes, systems, and areas gives culture a theoretical structure which aids research analysis. As some of the examples illustrate, these concepts which are used to give culture a certain structure have relevance for describing and analysing aspects of physical education.

### "Society" and Its Relationship With Culture

The concept "society" is usually identified as the human component of culture; people and the relationships between them.<sup>18</sup> Culture and society are inextricably bound together and "one cannot study social structure without reference to cultural material any more than one can

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<sup>16</sup>Sorokin, op. cit., p. 22.

<sup>17</sup>Stern and Jacobs, op. cit., p. 116.

<sup>18</sup>Bidney, op. cit., p. 101.





study culture without some references to the principles of social structure."<sup>19</sup> Man is the author of his culture but once it is started "the process becomes cyclical with societies developing cultures and the cultures in turn affecting their societies."<sup>20</sup> In this light culture must be thought of as a process rather than as a static entity by itself. Culture, as a dynamic open system, is in a continual state of flux due to the processes of change which result from interaction with the natural environment and society. Although various cultural structures serve certain functions at a given time, these functions may change in the course of history. Often the same structure may perform different functions in different countries, or, on the other hand, similar functions may be carried out by completely different structures as is often seen in physical education. After-school sports activities are organized and conducted by the schools in one country, sports organizations in another, community recreation departments in still another, and often by a combination of all three. This theme of structural-functional relationships has received some treatment by anthropologists like Malinowski and Radcliffe-Brown.

### Ecological Setting of Culture

Nature provides a setting in which culture develops and functions. In many ways man's biological and geographical environment limit the range of his activities.<sup>21</sup> He must satisfy basic needs and desires, and he is subject to the natural laws of his environment. In some ways a

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<sup>19</sup>Ibid., p. 102.      <sup>20</sup>Ibid., p. 104.      <sup>21</sup>Ibid., p. 10.



given culture may enlarge the scope of human freedom through encouraging the invention of artifacts which enable man to increase the range of his activities as well as his efficiency and control of the forces of nature by adapting them to the satisfaction of human needs and desires.<sup>22</sup> Man has developed snow-shoes, skis, skates, and the sleigh, toboggan, and bob-sled to increase his capacity for movements across ice and snow. Some men use high-powered boats to enable them to ski barefoot across water. Others employ ropes, crampons and other specialized gear to climb mountains, or utilize chair-lifts and tows to lift them to the hill-tops for easy downhill skiing with the aid of gravity. The Japanese have developed plastic snow so that they can practice ski-jumping the year-round. The effects of better nutrition combined with scientific training methods for developing strength, speed, and stamina have permitted man to surpass previous biological limitations to physical performance. These are only a few examples of the ways in which culture encourages man's inventiveness to overcome human biological and natural environmental limitations. But different cultures have achieved varying degrees of success in overcoming such natural limitations and it is important to discover why this is so.

If a particular aspect of culture is to be described and analysed then the ecological setting is one of the factors which must be assessed. It is beneficial, for such an assessment, to have a classification scheme for identifying the geographical and human biological features which are relevant for the particular cultural aspects being

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<sup>22</sup>Ibid.



studied, for example, systems of physical education. The following framework provides an example of one way of dealing with general features of the geographic and human biological environments.

TABLE V

## A CLASSIFICATION SCHEME FOR THE ECOLOGICAL SETTING OF CULTURE

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I. GEOGRAPHY<sup>a</sup>

1. Territoriality--the spatial features of the cultural area under study
  - a. Boundaries--physical and political
  - b. Size--area, length and width
  - c. Relative location--geographically and in relation to nearby cultural areas
2. Physiography--the major surface features  
The major land forms include:
  - a. Mountainous areas
  - b. Hill-country
  - c. Plains--prairies, steppes, and tundras
  - d. Plateaus
3. Hydrographic factors--for the purposes of physical education only surface water features are included:
  - a. Streams
  - b. Lakes
  - c. The ocean and its littoral
4. Biotic factors--the biological features of flora and fauna:
  - a. Natural vegetation--forest, savanna, grassland, or desert areas
  - b. Native animal life--arboreal and aerial, terrestrial, aquatic, and insect

II. CLIMATE<sup>a</sup>

1. Type--as classified by general conditions:
    - a. Tropical
    - b. Subtropical
    - c. Temperate
    - d. Polar
    - e. Undifferentiated, e.g., highland areas
  2. Temperature
    - a. Seasonal variations
    - b. Day-to-day changes
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TABLE V (Continued)

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3. Precipitation
a. Average annual amount
b. Seasonal distribution
c. Form of occurrence
III. HUMAN BIOLOGICAL CHARACTERISTICS
1. Characteristic Physique--anthropological measurements
2. Race

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<sup>a</sup>C. Langdon White and George T. Renner, Geography: An Introduction to Human Ecology (New York: D. Appleton-Century Company, 1936), pp. 21-24. N.B. This is a simplified version of their scheme.

The foregoing framework is a modification of the basic outline around which White and Renner develop their book on human ecology.

#### Some Major Aspects of Culture

In addition to considering the limitations of the ecological setting, one must be aware that culture can also act to place restrictions on human biological freedom. It is a prescriptive system which imposes authority and restraint on instinctive potentialities and acquired talents.<sup>23</sup> An individual may have the potential to take part in a wide range of sports and games and yet other aspects of his culture impose restrictions on his choices. Sometimes these restrictions are due to material factors such as inadequate facilities which may be explained sometimes by a lack of economic or technological resources to ensure proper development. Often behavioral factors, whether of a

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<sup>23</sup>Bidney, op. cit., p. 11.



political nature or the values and sanctions held by the family or other social groups, influence the individual's decisions to select culturally-approved modes of behavior. Similarly, factors in religious or ideological belief systems may have a significant influence on his choices. It is important to note here that all the major aspects of culture which interact with physical education have material, behavioral, and ideological components although for each aspect one of these three components may be the predominant factor influencing other aspects of culture. For example, it is frequently the case that technological factors would tend to be the most significant components influencing the quantity and quality aspects of a given culture system. Therefore, it appears that any attempt to explain the variations in what seemingly are two equivalent physical education "cultural systems" in two countries necessitates a sensitivity to certain components of culture. These components of culture, upon cursory inspection, may appear to be irrelevant, yet, where the components of culture are conceptualized and used for analytical purposes, these seemingly irrelevant aspects of culture may have many covert, subtle or latent influences which may explain the variations between the two contrasting cultural systems of physical education.

The following paragraphs attempt to provide a brief outline of some of the major aspects of culture. Following this descriptive outline a summarizing conceptual framework is drawn in Table VI to provide for continuity to the next chapter where there are examples of how these major aspects of culture interact with physical education and influence the unique characteristics of its structure and system of functioning.





1. Demographic factors. These include the size, location and characteristics of the population in the cultural area.

- a. Population--size, growth rates, and age distribution
- b. Settlement pattern--the density, and the distribution of the population
- c. Ethnic pattern--the diversity and persistence of various ethnic characteristics.

2. Technology and the material culture. The technology of a culture is comprised of the manipulative skills by which "men wrest from their habitat the foodstuffs, the shelter, the clothing, and the implements they must have if they are to survive."<sup>24</sup> The "material culture" is composed of the objects that man uses for these purposes.<sup>25</sup> Generally they are classified under:<sup>26</sup>

- a. Food and food customs--the vast array of inventions connected with nutritional maintenance and other behavioral fields such as social interaction, political relations, religion, art, recreation.
- b. Clothing and personal adornment--the main types of clothing worn and the function of clothing for protection, modesty, improving appearance, and social identification.
- c. Housing and community setting--the main varieties and the symbolic and other functions of housing, house furnishings, and community settings.
- d. Travel and transportation--the major inventions worked out to increase human mobility.
- e. Tools, weapons, and machines--the ways in which man has put his tool-using potentialities to work for particular types of resource utilization, protection, or other symbolic functions.

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<sup>24</sup>Melville J. Herskovits, Cultural Anthropology (New York: Alfred A. Knopf, 1955), p. 119.

<sup>25</sup>Ibid., p. 119.

<sup>26</sup>Felix M. Keesing, Cultural Anthropology: The Science of Custom (New York: Rinehart and Company, Inc., 1958), pp. 197-219.



- f. Ceramics, textiles, and metallurgy--the three major techniques for processing resources of the physical environment.

3. Economic organization. Economic organization is the aspect of culture that is comprised of the institutions and values which make up the systems by which the objects of the material culture are produced, distributed, and consumed.<sup>27</sup> Each society is faced with the problem of making choices among the possible uses of limited available resources because the wants of the society are always in excess of the capacity to produce.<sup>28</sup> In most cultures, economic organization is not only oriented to the subsistence goods required to satisfy primary needs but also to the prestige goods which attempt to satisfy psycho-cultural wants beyond the range of biological necessities. In this way, the economic system ties in functionally with social organization and with political, legal, religious, and aesthetic behaviors.<sup>29</sup> From one culture to another, there may be great differences in economic ideals, values, and goals and these are reflected in the nature of the systems for production, distribution, and consumption.<sup>30</sup>

- a. Systems of production--the organization involved in the production of goods and services to meet the needs that the society values. It includes: the division of labor or specialization of economic activity; the factors determining economic leadership; and work habits.
- b. Systems of distribution<sup>31</sup>--the customs surrounding the

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<sup>27</sup>Ibid., pp. 221-222.

<sup>28</sup>Melville J. Herskovits, Man and His Works (New York: Alfred A. Knopf, 1951), p. 266.

<sup>29</sup>Keesing, op. cit., p. 223. <sup>30</sup>Ibid.

<sup>31</sup>Ibid., pp. 230-36. This system of distribution combines Keesing's "systems of exchange" and "property concepts."





rights of ownership and use of goods, and, regarding the transfer of goods between groups and between individuals.

- c. Systems of consumption<sup>32</sup>--the distributive mechanisms which get goods and services into the hands of the consumers, the differences shown between the utilization of everyday goods and prestige goods, and the ways in which wealth is used to consummate wider social purposes.

4. Social organization. The persons in a given culture tend to interact in patterned ways and these become formalized into the various social structures which comprise the social organization of the culture. The various elements which serve as the guiding principles for the formation of social groups can be placed under three main categories: biological or constitutional factors such as age, sex, generation, and kinship; spatial or locality factors such as the household or community; and social or group aggregations such as the family, social class and other hierarchical arrangements.<sup>33</sup>

- a. Age and generation as organizing factors.<sup>34</sup> Each culture, or the various ethnic groups in the culture, have a set of cultural arrangements and values for various age groups and generations.
- b. Sex as an organizing factor.<sup>35</sup> Each society has its unique systems of relationship between the sexes, and its own clusters of beliefs, values, and sentiments about what each sex is permitted to do or advised not to do.
- c. The significance of the family.<sup>36</sup> The term "family" may be defined differently in various societies and it may refer to the immediate family consisting of parents and children, or to the extended family system. Family life tends to affect other aspects of culture and it may take alternative forms in different societies.
- d. Kinship.<sup>37</sup> Often called the core of social organization, the kinship ties by "blood," marriage, and adoption form

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<sup>33</sup>Ibid., p. 242.    <sup>34</sup>Ibid., pp. 247-51.    <sup>35</sup>Ibid., pp. 251-55.

<sup>36</sup>Ibid., pp. 265-71.    <sup>37</sup>Ibid., pp. 271-74.    <sup>32</sup>Ibid., pp. 236-39.





important social relationships. It may be a paramount factor in organizing group activities.

- e. Voluntary, or interest, associations.<sup>38</sup> In all societies there has been room for the existence of groupings based on elective choice due to friendship, common interest, or other principles. In modern civilizations there has been a vast increase in social interaction based on such voluntary associations.
- f. Hierarchical or rank-order principles.<sup>39</sup> "In human societies, individuals and groups of different ages, sexes, kin linkages, occupations, tend to assume a graded order when questions of precedence, authority, seriation (going in succession) are raised." More set and socially defined hierarchical relationships represent "rank" and are an organizing principle for both individuals and groups. Social classes occur when a whole social system falls into ranked segments.

5. Political organization. The political aspect of culture is basically "the cultural arrangements by which a group shares rights in a territory and organizes for mutual services including defense of that territory." It has as a central concept, "The exercise of power."<sup>40</sup> The following features are characteristic of political organization.<sup>41</sup>

- a. Common membership and loyalty. In simpler systems of organization such as the band or tribe the groupings tend to have small membership but modern socio-political units, such as nations, usually have a much larger membership. Generally the members occupy a definite territory and are bound together by symbols and customs of loyalty to defend it.
- b. Shared traditions and symbols. Each political system has many forms of ritual, pageantry, symbolic artifacts and other devices through which sentiments are developed and expressed for the importance of the political units, their governments, and leaders.

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<sup>38</sup>Ibid., pp. 280-81.

<sup>39</sup>Ibid., pp. 281-85.

<sup>40</sup>Ibid., p. 287.

<sup>41</sup>Ibid., pp. 287-301.



- c. Internal government. Arrangements are made for the legislative, executive, and judicial functions required for group control and welfare.
- d. External relations. The relationships with other political organizations are determined to a certain extent by feelings of nationalism or loyalty and by the ways the members look out upon others in the world. This will influence attitudes towards international organizations.

6. Social control.<sup>42</sup> Each culture has unique standards and values as to the kinds of behavior the society concerned counts as "normal," "good," "right." In order to establish social order and integration members are expected to fit their actions into established norms and rules which are enforced by mechanisms called sanctions.

- a. The forces of social conformity. Certain factors in society operate to produce obedience to behavioral norms, rules and laws. The process of enculturation conditions the individual to the particular rules valued in his society. Social sanctions associated with public opinion provide pressures to keep conduct within the rules and the individual soon learns that conformity is in his own self-interest.
- b. The responses of society to breaches of rules. Each culture has an established body of laws and has delegated certain persons such as the militia or police to apprehend the people who break these laws. Complementing this is a judicial system by which suspected rule breakers are tried and if convicted required to pay fines or sentenced to serve periods of time in prison.

7. World view: knowledge and belief. As culture develops man acquires increasing knowledge about the "certainties" of life. But there are many important areas of experience beyond knowledge that man attempts to explain through philosophy and religion.<sup>43</sup> These ideational dimensions of culture help to shape his world view.

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<sup>42</sup>Ibid., pp. 302-20.

<sup>43</sup>Ibid., p. 321.







- a. Knowledge.<sup>44</sup> Each custom implies intellectual awareness and control, a conceptual apparatus to manipulate action and this constitutes "a body of knowledge."
- b. Philosophy.<sup>45</sup> In philosophy "the emphasis is on externalized and intellectual speculation," which is considered in most cultures as mainly an aspect of religion but which seems to be acquiring a "more secular and intellectualistic character" in modern civilizations.
- c. Religion.<sup>46</sup> "Every known culture includes an elaborate set of beliefs which represent for the people concerned effective answers to the "Why" questions of life, and also provide for organization and action appropriate to those beliefs."

8. Art and play. As predominantly recreative and self-expressive aspects of culture, art and play are marked by elective or voluntary interests. They show a very wide range in their degree of structuring and have important aesthetic, communicative, creative, integrative, and therapeutic functions.<sup>47</sup>

- a. The major arts.<sup>48</sup> They include: the graphic and plastic arts, music, the dance, drama and ceremony, oratory, folklore, and literature.
- b. Play.<sup>49</sup> Play "is a field of behavior in which fictional or nontruth premises hold sway, by contrast with those fields dominated by truth, reality, rationality." It is characterized by free, non-purposive, often competitively friendly, behavior and is accompanied by various "manifestations of 'pleasure,' 'relaxation,' 'curiosity,' 'amusement,' and sometimes 'simulated' anger or struggle."

9. Language. It is "the vocal symbolism of speech with its related bodily gestures and mechanical signals, such as writing, which gives precision and finesse to communication."<sup>50</sup>

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<sup>44</sup>Ibid., pp. 321-221. <sup>45</sup>Ibid., pp. 340-41. <sup>46</sup>Ibid., pp. 323-24.

<sup>47</sup>Ibid., p. 342. <sup>48</sup>Ibid., pp. 352-62. <sup>49</sup>Ibid., pp. 342-45.

<sup>50</sup>Ibid., p. 364.



- a. The nature and significance of human communication.<sup>51</sup>  
Communication is the basis for the working of the society. The persons in a culture attach meaning to different verbal signals and communicate with these. Certain gestures also take on cultural meanings, as do graphic symbols, and both help to facilitate the communication which is necessary for the effective operation of the society.
- b. The distribution and dynamics of language.<sup>52</sup> The group of people who use the same speech signals make up a "speech community." In widely spread languages, several regionally differentiated "dialects" may exist. Language changes occur through internal change, borrowing, or factors of interaction which operate to stimulate bilingualism or polylingualism. The mass media exercise increasingly wide influences toward linguistic consolidation.

Nine major aspects of culture and their major component parts, then, have been discussed. The latter eight of them represent to a large extent the dimensions of culture outlined by Keesing.<sup>53</sup> In summary, a brief outline of the framework appears below:

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<sup>51</sup>Ibid., pp. 365-67.      <sup>52</sup>Ibid., pp. 370-75.

<sup>53</sup>Ibid., pp. 188-380.



TABLE VI  
THE MAJOR ASPECTS OF CULTURE

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1. DEMOGRAPHIC FACTORS
    - a. Population
    - b. Settlement pattern
    - c. Ethnic pattern
  2. TECHNOLOGY AND MATERIAL CULTURE
    - a. Food and food customs
    - b. Clothing and personal adornment
    - c. Housing and community setting
    - d. Travel and transportation
    - e. Tools, weapons, and machines
    - f. Ceramics, textiles, and metallurgy
  3. ECONOMIC ORGANIZATION
    - a. Production
    - b. Distribution
    - c. Consumption
  4. SOCIAL ORGANIZATION
    - a. Age and generation
    - b. Sex
    - c. Family
    - d. Kinship
    - e. Voluntary associations
    - f. Rank-order
  5. POLITICAL ORGANIZATION
    - a. Common membership and loyalty
    - b. Shared traditions and symbols
    - c. Internal government
    - d. External relations
  6. SOCIAL CONTROL
    - a. Social conformity
    - b. Response to breaches of rules
  7. WORLD VIEW
    - a. Knowledge
    - b. Philosophy
    - c. Religion
  8. ARTS AND PLAY
    - a. The major arts
    - b. Play
  9. LANGUAGE
    - a. Human communication
    - b. Distribution and dynamics of language
- 
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### Cultural Dynamics

According to Herskovits, "Change. . . is a universal cultural phenomenon, and the process of change over a period of time constitutes the dynamics of culture."<sup>54</sup> Murdock states, "It is a fundamental characteristic of culture, that despite its essentially conservative nature, it does change over time and from place to place."<sup>55</sup> Thus, in addition to forces leading to change in each culture there are also conservative forces which work for the stability and duration of certain aspects of the culture. A vast body of stabilizing elements give continuity to the way of life while other changes are actually in progress.

Keessing indicates, for the study of culture change, the "field of theory and method is currently weak and not well integrated."<sup>56</sup> There tends to be considerable overlap in the terms employed to describe various processes of cultural change. A few authors have outlined an overall framework for the analysis of culture change and the following paragraphs attempt to provide such a framework.

Long-term cultural development and change. When studying a culture system, such as physical education, it is useful to describe the origin and historical development of the various elements and

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<sup>54</sup>Herskovits, Cultural Dynamics, p. 147.

<sup>55</sup>Harry L. Shapiro, Man, Culture, and Society (New York: Oxford University Press, 1960), p. 247.

<sup>56</sup>Felix M. Keessing, Culture Change (Stanford, California: Stanford University Press, 1953), p. 1.



complexes that make up this system. Such changes and modifications of culture are possible "because human freedom involves a circular concept of cultural causality--rather than a linear one--according to which man is the efficient cause of the cultural process and culture in turn affects man."<sup>57</sup> Therefore, man as a change agent may generate actions which stimulate the acquisition of new cultural values and thereby influence gradual "growth changes" in various aspects of the culture.<sup>58</sup> The people of each culture have a basic value system which tends to act as a censor in the selective screening of new elements which are available to the culture.<sup>59</sup> But, this value system itself gradually changes and may, on occasions, be seriously disrupted without the adequate substitution of new values.<sup>60</sup>

Cultural development is influenced by: ecological factors such as geography and climate; biological-psychological factors of the members of the culture; and demographic-social factors.<sup>61</sup> As mentioned previously various factors in the natural environment facilitate or limit the development of certain aspects of culture. The members of a culture may have different degrees of orientation to the past, present, and future and this affects their attitudes toward change.<sup>62</sup> Links with

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<sup>57</sup>Bidney, op. cit., p. 17.

<sup>58</sup>A. L. Kroeber, Anthropology (New York: Harcourt, Brace and Company, 1948), p. 387.

<sup>59</sup>Keesing, Culture Change, p. 79.

<sup>60</sup>Ibid., p. 80. <sup>61</sup>Ibid., p. 74.

<sup>62</sup>Alvin W. Gouldner, and Helen P. Gouldner, Modern Sociology: An Introduction to the Study of Human Interaction (New York: Harcourt, Brace and World, Inc., 1963), pp. 640-41.





the past are maintained through the processes of enculturation and socialization. "Enculturation" is the process through which man learns about his cultural traditions so that he might support the duration of certain patterns in the culture.<sup>63</sup> Through the process of "socialization" man becomes a member of society by learning to conform to the values and norms of behavior that are deemed acceptable by the society in that particular culture.<sup>64</sup> Previous mention has also been made of the many ways in which factors of technology, economic and political organization, demography, social structure and so on influence culture development.

Analysis of the long-term cultural development and change will give a perspective of the "cultural drift" or direction of over-all change.<sup>65</sup> Certain aspects of culture may be slower to develop than others and thus a "lag" occurs.<sup>66</sup> Other features may disappear from the culture altogether.

Innovation. The term innovation is used to describe the process by which new elements and habits are developed and accepted and put into practice in the culture.<sup>67</sup> "Invention" refers to the original creative act of devising something new in a culture<sup>68</sup> and "parallel invention" to the idea that similar inventions may occur in different cultures without contact between the cultures.<sup>69</sup> Primary innovations come from within

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<sup>63</sup>Keesing, Cultural Anthropology, p. 428. <sup>64</sup>Ibid., p. 431.

<sup>65</sup>Keesing, Culture Change, p. 74. <sup>66</sup>Ibid.

<sup>67</sup>Keesing, Cultural Anthropology, p. 393. <sup>68</sup>Ibid.

<sup>69</sup>Stern and Jacobs, op. cit., p. 119.



the culture itself. Secondary innovations occur when unique changes are made to elements or habits which have been borrowed from other cultures. Thus, innovation plays a significant role in the process of cultural development.

Processes of cultural transfer. In many cases, development and change in a culture is stimulated by factors in other cultures. "Diffusion" is the spread of an element from one culture to another and has been, in most cultures, a more decisive influence in development than invention.<sup>70</sup> Diffusion may occur in several different ways. Cultural elements are carried from one culture to another by immigrants, travellers, and officials, or, they may be imported or copied from another system. "Stimulus diffusion" is the name given to the process in which a receiving culture does not accept a certain element but is stimulated by this element to invent another mechanism which will produce the desired result.<sup>71</sup> Every element that is borrowed is taken into a different cultural setting and as a result is adjusted or modified to suit the new conditions. This process is often referred to as "adaptation" or "integration."<sup>72</sup>

"Acculturation" is a broader term than diffusion and refers to the modification of a culture through more or less continuous contact with another. It is a cumulative process of culture transfer and

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<sup>70</sup>Stern and Jacobs, op. cit., pp. 120-121.

<sup>71</sup>Kroeber, op. cit., pp. 368-69.

<sup>72</sup>Stern and Jacobs, op. cit., p. 121.





reformulation and may result in changes in the original culture patterns of both groups. "Assimilation" occurs when introduced elements become totally accepted into a new cultural milieu. When two cultural systems merge to form a distinctive third system it is called "cultural fusion." All three processes tend to involve direct and usually prolonged contact between cultures.<sup>73</sup>

All these processes of cultural transfer are governed by selectivity process of "utility" and "adaptability." The elements which are accepted in a culture from other cultures must be useful for the culture or must be amenable to adaptations which will make them useful. As a result some innovation involving creative acts by individuals in the receiving culture often occurs in the diffusion process. This illustrates some of the processes of cultural transfer that are significant for the development and change of a particular culture.

Rates of change; loci of stability and change. In any analysis of cultural dynamics it is important to discover the tendencies for stability and change. Each culture tends to focus on certain ideas and activities that are the center of interest and attention.<sup>75</sup> Mentioned previously were the processes of enculturation and socialization by which traditions are preserved.

Societies may be oriented to stability or mobility and thus may develop zones of persistence and zones of mobility for various aspects

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<sup>73</sup>Keesing, Cultural Anthropology, p. 387.

<sup>74</sup>Keesing, Culture Change, p. 78. <sup>75</sup>Ibid., p. 83.





of culture.<sup>76</sup> Those aspects which are included in zones of persistence are difficult to change while those in zones of mobility are amenable to change. Therefore, certain aspects in a culture such as technology may be subject to accelerated change because it is in a zone of mobility while religion may persist with its traditional characteristics. As a result, some aspects of culture lag behind the others in their rates of change.

Cultural disorganization and reorganization. There is a tendency for cultural systems to become disorganized under dynamic conditions of change.<sup>77</sup> With many changes there may be dysfunctional aspects due to poor integration of features or unexpected effects of innovations. This disorganization may result in certain tensions for members of the culture which stimulates them to strive for reorganization and readjustment in order to survive. Thus, tensions are redirected into various adaptive processes or into new channels of development.<sup>78</sup> These processes of disorganization and reorganization are part of the dynamics of every culture.

Several concepts which have relevance for describing and explaining the dynamics of culture have been presented. They serve to explain in concise form many of the processes of cultural dynamics and may prove fruitful for explaining the developments and changes which have occurred in systems of physical education. In summary, the following framework is presented as a possible outline for studying the dynamics of culture:

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<sup>76</sup>Ibid., p. 83.

<sup>77</sup>Ibid., p. 84.

<sup>78</sup>Ibid., pp. 85-86.



TABLE VII

## A FRAMEWORK FOR STUDYING CULTURAL DEVELOPMENT AND CHANGE

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1. Long-term cultural development and change
  2. Innovation
  3. Processes of cultural transfer
  4. Rates of change; loci of stability and change
  5. Cultural disorganization and reorganization
- 
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The preceding pages of this section have attempted to illustrate some of the ways in which cultural anthropology might provide several useful concepts and frameworks for describing and analysing physical education as an aspect of culture. A perspective of the total structure of culture and its relationships with the natural and social environments provides a valuable basis for realistically analysing any one aspect of culture. A knowledge of "setting" factors and the major aspects of culture indicates possible features which may interact with the system of physical education. The concepts presented to explain cultural dynamics should have specific application in explaining changes in physical education. The field of cultural anthropology contains a vast amount of literature and it has been possible to investigate only a limited number of sources. Further research of anthropological theory should provide additional information to increase the effectiveness of analytical studies of physical education as a cultural phenomenon.





## II. A SOCIOLOGICAL VIEWPOINT

Sociology has many theoretical concepts which have application in the comparative study of systems of physical education. Physical education in any country or subculture within a country involves the social interaction of individuals and groups. In most societies, there are formal organizations dedicated to the development, promotion, and maintenance of a variety of facilities and activities in the field of physical education. Interaction between physical education systems and other social systems in a given society are inevitable but the range and degree of mutual influence on each other varies. In this age of rapid transition, the analysis of social change is vital to understand the functioning of large systems of physical education. Just as the anthropologists have provided useful conceptual tools for understanding aspects of "cultural systems" of physical education, so too have the sociologists developed concepts about society and human social action which have merit in the analysis, explanation, and control of certain social phenomena. The remainder of this section will elaborate on some of these concepts and show their relevance for the study of organizations in physical education.

### Social Interaction

The basic point of reference of sociology, as chosen by leading theorists such as Sorokin, Parsons and Loomis, is the meaningful interaction of two or more individuals or organized groups of human beings.<sup>79</sup>

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<sup>79</sup>Sorokin, op. cit., p. 420; Parsons, op. cit., p. 4; and Charles P. Loomis, Social Systems: Essays on Their Persistence and Change (Princeton, N.J.: D. Van Nostrand Company, Inc., 1960), p. 3.



Sorokin defines interaction as "any event by which one party tangibly influences the overt actions or the state of mind of the other."<sup>80</sup> The physical education teacher or coach, when he helps other people to learn new skills or acquire new attitudes and values, is involved in the process of interaction. But this process is also a reciprocal and interdependent activity,<sup>81</sup> so that the teacher, in turn, is influenced by the actions of the pupils. In addition, action takes place in a "setting" or "situation" which encompasses aspects of the physical, cultural, and social world and may set limits on the action that occurs.<sup>82</sup> A system of meanings and values is superimposed on the actions of human organisms, by the sociocultural world or by other persons and groups, so that they are oriented towards certain goals and regulated by certain norms for behavior.<sup>83</sup>

Interaction, or reciprocal action, tends to develop certain uniformities and when these persist they comprise "social relations." Patterns of these organized and systematic social relations or interaction systems are recognized as a "social system."<sup>84</sup> Thus a social system is composed of identifiable elements and patterns of regularities which appear with such frequency that "structures" may be attributed to the social system. This system must meet certain essential "structural and function requisites" in order to survive.<sup>85</sup>

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<sup>80</sup>Sorokin, op. cit., p. 420.      <sup>81</sup>Loomis, op. cit., p. 3.

<sup>82</sup>Sorokin, op. cit., p. 420.      <sup>83</sup>Loomis, op. cit., p. 2.      <sup>84</sup>Ibid.

<sup>85</sup>Marion J. Levy, The Structure of Society (Princeton, New Jersey: Princeton University Press, 1952), pp. 39-40.





## Society and Culture

Loomis states that:

Society is constituted of reciprocal activity which is structured and differentiated into a variable number of systems, some of them quite distinct, highly structured, and persistent; others are not so directly visible, are more amorphous, and more transient.<sup>86</sup>

Society is viewed as a "master system" made up of its component subsystems such as the family, social classes, economics, politics, religion and so on. These in turn are comprised of many smaller systems at different levels of organization. No matter at what level a social system is found, it has certain persistent elements or structures which are articulated by certain similar processes or functions.<sup>87</sup> These are the "requisites" which were mentioned previously.

Parsons and Sorokin qualify their views of society in greater depth by tracing the interrelationships with personality and culture. Sorokin clearly defines all three:

(1) personality as the subject of interaction; (2) society as the totality of interacting personalities with their sociocultural relationships and processes; (3) culture as the totality of the meanings, values, and norms possessed by the interacting persons and the totality of the vehicles which objectify, socialize, and convey these meanings. . . .None of the members of this indivisible trinity (personality, society, and culture) can exist without the other two. . . .<sup>88</sup>

Taking a modern organization in physical education for an example, if one accepts Sorokin's and Parson's points of view one cannot hope to fully understand it until an analysis has focused on the individual personalities, their cultural heritage of meanings, values, and norms

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<sup>86</sup>Loomis, op. cit., p. 5.      <sup>87</sup>Ibid.      <sup>88</sup>Sorokin, op. cit., p. 421.





and the artifacts and sociofacts by which they objectify, socialize and convey these, and their meaningful interaction with other individuals and groups both within and outside the organization. Therefore, if these concepts are utilized, analyses of social systems such as the Y.M.C.A., community recreation departments, and national sports governing bodies would include an assessment of cultural, social, and personality factors.

All the social systems in society have cultural, social, and personality aspects and as a result are often termed sociocultural systems. As explained in the anthropological section, Sorokin views these systems as also being comprised of ideological, behavioral, and material components. Sorokin identifies the basic sociocultural systems as: "language, science, philosophy, religion, the fine arts, ethics, law, and the vast derivative systems of applied technology, economics, and politics."<sup>89</sup> There is a tendency for the bulk of the meanings-values-norms of these systems to unite into one consistent ideological whole which is objectified in material vehicles and actualized in human behavior. As a result, such vast systems usually have numerous influences on organizations in physical education, some obvious and direct; others covert, indirect and subtle.

#### Setting and Situation

Certain limits set by human heredity, the non-human environment, and the sociocultural environment govern the activity of all social

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<sup>89</sup>Ibid., p. 22.



systems. The concept "setting" is used to refer to "the factors that determine, either exactly or on a probability basis, the maximum range of possible variation in the patterns that characterize the unit."<sup>90</sup> In this case, the unit is a sociocultural system. The term "situation" is also commonly employed. Parsons indicates that a person can be oriented towards two classes of objects which the situation provides; "(1) non-social, that is, physical objects or accumulated cultural resources or (2) social objects, that is, individual actors and collectivities," including one's own personality.<sup>91</sup> The functioning of systems of physical education and recreation is affected by certain geographic and climatic factors of the physical environment, and by the accumulated cultural objects (material, behavioral, and ideological) in the society. Social objects also play a very significant role. To understand systems being studied, then, it is necessary to assess their relationships with the setting or situation in which they function.

#### Interconnections Between Sociocultural Phenomena

Sociocultural phenomena are interconnected in a variety of ways ranging from unorganized relationships to very highly organized ones. Once again, it is useful to turn to Sorokin for an explanation of the possible types of relationships. First, he indicates that there are many cultural objects and processes which merely have spatial proximity but no causal or logical ties. These objects, which just happen to be located in the same area are called "cultural congeries."<sup>92</sup> Sometimes

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<sup>90</sup>Levy, op. cit., p. 37.    <sup>91</sup>Parsons, op. cit., p. 5.

<sup>92</sup>Sorokin, op. cit., p. 17.





"semicongeries" of cultural objects exist which although they do not relate to each other have some semblance of organization because they are related to a common factor.<sup>93</sup> A storeroom may be filled with several types of sports equipment which are not used for the same sports but may all be used in the intramural program. A third type of inter-connection occurs when cultural objects and processes have direct "causal" ties which give them unity.<sup>94</sup> Wartime usually results in an increased emphasis on physical fitness programs in the countries involved. "Meaningful" unities occur when certain meanings form one logically consistent and comprehensive philosophy<sup>95</sup> such as the Olympic philosophy of amateurism. Sociocultural systems, however, are something more than congeries, semicongeries, causal systems, or meaningful systems. They are "meaningful-causal systems" in which meanings are objectified by material vehicles and behavioral acts to form a system with behavioral and material as well as ideological characteristics.<sup>96</sup> A community recreation department, the physical education section of an education system, a national sports body such as the Amateur Athletic Union, or the Canadian Intercollegiate Athletic Association, the Parks and Recreation Association of Canada, and the Fitness and Amateur Sports Directorate all represent types of meaningful-causal systems in Canada. It is the aim of comparative physical education to describe and analyse such sociocultural systems and study their interrelationships with other relevant sociocultural systems in a given setting or situation.

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<sup>93</sup>Ibid., p. 18.

<sup>94</sup>Ibid., pp. 18-19.

<sup>95</sup>Ibid., p. 19.



### Social Systems--Structural and Functional Requisites

In the type of comparative studies which are being proposed in this thesis the main concern is to analyse specific social systems--those concerned with physical education and physical recreation. Levy defines a social system as "a patterned system of social action involving a plurality of interacting individuals."<sup>97</sup> Sorokin points out that these individuals have

. . .A consistent set of meanings-values-norms that satisfies their need(s) and for whose use, enjoyment, maintenance, and growth the individuals are freely or coercively bound together into one collectivity with a definite and consistent set of law-norms prescribing their conduct and interrelationships. . . .<sup>98</sup>

According to Loomis, for every social system, "the elements that constitute it as a social system and the processes that articulate it remain the same."<sup>99</sup> These persistent features are what Levy calls "structural" and "functional requisites."<sup>100</sup> Since these features which have regularity in expression, can be found in every social system they provide a valuable orientation for the analysis of organizations in physical education. Parsons defines an "organization" as,

. . .A system which, as the attainment of its goal, 'produces' an identifiable something which can be utilized in some way by another system; that is, the output of the organization is, for some other system, an input.<sup>101</sup>

The framework of processes or functional requisites which is presented has been derived from the schemes of Loomis and Levy. These two authors

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<sup>97</sup>Levy, op. cit., p. 19.      <sup>98</sup>Sorokin, op. cit., p. 27.

<sup>99</sup>Loomis, op. cit., p. 5.      <sup>100</sup>Levy, op. cit., pp. 62-63.

<sup>101</sup>Talcott Parsons, Structure and Process in Modern Societies (Glencoe: The Free Press, 1963), p. 17.





tend to agree on most of the points but also offer some differences in concepts which seem to add strength and clarity to the framework being developed in this study. The processes or functional requisites receive primary attention as the elements or structures tend to become apparent in their discussion. In using this framework to study empirical systems care must be taken to first of all identify the social system which is to be analysed. This framework is designed to be suitable for analysing either the vast social system encompassing all the organizations in physical education or one specific organization. Therefore, the definition of the social system to be studied is to some extent an arbitrary selection for the convenience of analysis.

The following criteria are presented as being those requisite processes or functions that a social system must perform in order to persist.

Provisions for adequate membership. Just as a society must provide the means for biological reproduction of its members and must sufficiently satisfy their physiological needs to ensure adequate performance for survival, so too must an organization have methods of obtaining new members and fulfilling their needs so that they continue to operate at adequate levels to sustain the organization.<sup>102</sup> Many structural features may be present in a social system to carry out this function of member recruitment and motivation. There is, in most sports for example, an elaborate hierarchy of competition levels, each

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<sup>102</sup>Levy, op. cit., pp. 151-56.





geared to preparing players to move up to the next level.

Shared cognitive orientations. Members of a social system must share certain beliefs and have a common body of knowledge. They must also agree on the processes by which basic conceptual tools and the fund of knowledge are utilized, developed, and changed.<sup>103</sup> This facilitates cooperation to adapt to or manipulate the situation of action, makes stable, meaningful and, to some extent, predictable their social interrelations, and sustains motivation in the face of aspects which they cannot control.<sup>104</sup> For example, a physical education department usually has a basic core of knowledge and beliefs about subject matter and how it is to be taught, the importance of the subject in the curriculum, how the department should function and so on. The core of knowledge and beliefs which are agreed on and the clarity with which they are set forth differs to some degree from one department to another and certainly from one country to another. Regardless of what they are, shared cognitive orientations must be present for an organization to function effectively enough to survive.

A shared articulated set of goals. Individuals in a social system must agree on certain ends, goals, or objectives which they expect to accomplish by appropriate interaction.<sup>105</sup> Certain of these goals have instrumental ends in adapting the system to its situation or

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<sup>103</sup>Loomis, op. cit., pp. 11-12.      <sup>104</sup>Levy, op. cit., p. 169.

<sup>105</sup>Loomis, op. cit., p. 15.



producing some output for the benefit of society. Others try to achieve expressive ends in satisfying the member's personal needs and wants.<sup>106</sup> These goals are often stated in written aims and objectives and serve to motivate the performance of the members. Care must be taken, however, to ensure that there is congruence between stated goals and those actually held by members and articulated in their behavior. The goals of the physical education programs in various countries exhibit similarities and differences which must be considered in making comparisons.

Norms and evaluation. Loomis states that:

The rules which prescribe what is acceptable or unacceptable are more inclusive than written rules, regulations, or laws. . . . They refer to all criteria for judging the character or conduct of both individual or group actions in any social system.<sup>107</sup>

Norms, which include the informal and formal "rules" to which Loomis refers, have an effect on all elements and their respective processes. They influence the range of goal choices and govern the selection and application of resources in the attainment of ends and goals.<sup>108</sup> All organizations in physical education have criteria for judging the appropriateness of individual or group behavior. There are norms for staff-student relationships, sportsmanlike conduct in games, and proper methods of teaching. As Loomis himself states, "the norm of 'fair play' and 'good sportmanship' may be of importance in athletic activity."<sup>109</sup>

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<sup>106</sup>Ibid.    <sup>107</sup>Ibid., p. 17.

<sup>108</sup>Ibid., p. 16.    <sup>109</sup>Ibid., p. 17.





Members are able to select priorities from many alternative courses of action by evaluating them in the light of established norms.<sup>110</sup>

Role differentiation and role assignment. In social systems, particularly formal organizations, each member is assigned to a "status-role." Each member has a "status," or position, which provides an orientation for the actions of other members. But the member also has certain functions to perform in reference to the others and this is his "role."<sup>111</sup> These concepts of status and role can also be applied to organizations sponsoring physical education, which, in turn, may be made up of many smaller organizations, each with a specific status-role. The "actual role" is the manner in which the individual actually carries out the requirements of his position while the "institutionalized role" consists of the normative standards for the behavior that is expected in that position.<sup>112</sup> The coach of a sports team may take certain actions which are to his players' dissatisfaction because they expect him to do other things. "Role assignment" occurs when an individual or individuals are allocated the obligations, rights, and expected performances in roles.<sup>113</sup> In a sport club different roles are assigned to the executive, the manager, the coach, and the players. In a larger social system like physical education and recreation, different responsibilities are allocated to, or assumed by the schools, the universities, the community recreation departments, sports organizations, youth clubs, and so on, and

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<sup>110</sup>Ibid., p. 18.      <sup>111</sup>Ibid., p. 19.

<sup>112</sup>Levy, op. cit., pp. 159-60.      <sup>113</sup>Ibid., p. 161.



within these certain status-roles are unconsciously created for the personnel involved. Thus, in studying national systems, the comparative scholar is interested in the status-roles of different organizations and how they are assigned.

Decision-making and initiation of action. In any organization, certain members have the power (the capacity) or the "authority" (the right as determined by members of the system) to control others.<sup>114</sup> Administrators in a physical education or recreation department make decisions which reduce the number of alternative courses of available action and take the necessary steps to see that the adopted plans of action are carried out. Decision-making may be carried out through authoritative power or by voluntary influence depending on the situation or the particular system.

Communication and regulation of sentiment. Loomis explains that "sentiments are primarily expressive and represent 'what we feel' about the world no matter why we feel it."<sup>115</sup> Members of an organization have certain feelings and emotions towards various objects and activities. These feelings are communicated through various kinds of expressive symbols to help motivate members to achieve goals, conform to norms or carry out systematic action.<sup>116</sup> For many teams or organizations sentiment serves to elicit the integration and cooperation required to achieve group ends. The process of "tension management"

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<sup>114</sup>Loomis, op. cit., p. 20.    <sup>115</sup>Ibid., p. 13.

<sup>116</sup>Levy, op. cit., pp. 184-85.





stimulates activities which prevent sentiments from obstructing goal-directed behavior<sup>117</sup> as with quarrels between team-mates or disputes between organizations.

Evaluation as a process in ranking. Any social system that implies order must place its members in a hierarchy of levels. "Rank" is the standing or value attributed to a certain position in a social system. It is determined by the evaluation of factors such as status-role, power, authority, prestige and esteem that a member or group of members may have.<sup>118</sup> Members of a society tend to rank the various sports and recreational activities according to their values and popularity. In Canada, hockey has higher rank than skiing or speedskating while in Norway skiing ranks high and in Holland speedskating does. Physical educators in most countries are striving to improve the rank of their profession and of the various programs that they promote. Assessing the rank of the profession and different physical activities in a country, and how this ranking has changed or may change becomes an important aspect of the comparative study.

Utilization of facilities. Any means used to attain ends within the system, whether material, behavioral, or ideological, can be defined as a "facility."<sup>119</sup> A good amount of information about the functioning of an organization is revealed by the way it utilizes its existing facilities in the context of time and space and how it develops new

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<sup>117</sup>Loomis, op. cit., p. 14.    <sup>118</sup>Ibid., pp. 23-25.    <sup>119</sup>Ibid., p. 27.





facilities through the application of technology, and human and material resources. There have been many changes in sport and recreation in Canada during the last half century through the application of technology to develop new facilities such as artificial ice, large stadia and gymnasia, swimming pools, and many others. The efficiency with which systems of physical education utilize their available facilities becomes another important focus for comparative studies.

The treatment of functional requisites would not be complete without considering the "master processes" which tend to be part of all the functions dealt with previously.

#### Master Processes

In addition to structural and functional requisites, Loomis states that there are six master processes which are evident in every social system and they seem to have relevance for each of the other requisites in the system. The following master processes have been proposed by Loomis:

Communication. "Communication is the process by which information, decisions, and directives are transmitted among actors and the ways in which knowledge, opinions, and attitudes are formed or modified by interaction."<sup>120</sup> To understand the dynamics of any social system it is necessary to have a knowledge of the communication media, channels and barriers within the system.

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<sup>120</sup>Ibid., p. 30.



Boundary maintenance. This is "the process whereby the identity of the social system is preserved and the characteristic interaction pattern maintained."<sup>121</sup> These activities protect the system from internal and external threats, and may relate to factors such as physical areas, use or non-use of facilities, accepted social behavior, or group size.

Systemic linkage. Systemic linkage is "the process whereby one or more of the elements of at least two social systems is articulated in such a manner that the two systems in some ways and on some occasions may be viewed as a single unit."<sup>122</sup> This is a particularly useful concept in comparative studies of systems of organizations. Occasionally, whole organizations have the sole function of systemic linkage as is the case with the Amateur Athletic Union which links several different types of sports organizations.

Socialization. This is the process through which the social and cultural heritage is transmitted. Members acquire the attitudes and values, skills and behavior patterns which help them to adequately perform their roles in the social structure.<sup>123</sup> Educational institutions play a very significant role in this process.

Social control. This is "the process by which deviancy is either eliminated or somehow made compatible with the functioning of the social

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<sup>121</sup> Ibid., p. 31.      <sup>122</sup> Ibid., p. 32.      <sup>123</sup> Ibid., pp. 34-35.





groups."<sup>124</sup> This is carried out by the application of norms, and sanctions by other members of the group, and especially by those who have power and authority. At certain times deviant behavior is permitted due to circumstances such as sickness or when change is deemed desirable.

Institutionalization. This is "the global master process which patterns knowing, feeling, achieving, evaluating, ranking, controlling, and sanctioning" to give the organization its structure and to some extent make predictable its action and interaction.<sup>125</sup>

These structures, functions, and master processes constitute the central core of the social structure. If they are considered along with the environmental and sociocultural aspects of the "situation" in which the organization functions then reasonable understanding of the social system will occur. The following framework not only provides a summary of these concepts but may also be a useful research device.

TABLE VIII

## STRUCTURAL AND FUNCTIONAL REQUISITES OF SOCIAL SYSTEMS

	Master Processes
1. Provisions for adequate membership	Communication
2. Shared cognitive orientations	Boundary maintenance
3. A shared articulated set of goals	Systemic linkage
4. Norms and evaluation	Socialization
5. Role differentiation	Social control
6. Decision-making and initiation of action	Institutionalization
7. Communication and regulation of sentiment	
8. Evaluation as a process in ranking	
9. Utilization of facilities	

<sup>124</sup>Ibid., pp. 35-36.

<sup>125</sup>Ibid., p. 36.



### The Analysis of Social Change

Sociocultural systems are dynamic and are constantly in a state of flux and change. There are tensions between the normative, idealistic concepts which members hold and the actual structures and functioning of the system. Ogburn's theory of "cultural lag" points out that various parts of modern culture, and of sociocultural systems for that matter, change more rapidly than others.<sup>126</sup> This stimulates readjustment of other interdependent parts. At times, "anomie" or behavior which deviates from generally accepted goals, modes of action, and behavior, results in a change in parts of the system.<sup>127</sup> Change may be caused by internal factors in the system or external influences of the situation or the operation of other sociocultural systems.<sup>128</sup> In analysing social change it is useful to look at it at three different stages:

Initial stage. This is the stage from which change takes place. In order to analyse change one must establish what structures and functions were presented before it occurred.<sup>129</sup>

Transitional stage. This is the period in which change is effectuated and it is useful for analysis purposes to identify the agents

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<sup>126</sup>J. A. Ponsioen, The Analysis of Social Change Reconsidered ('S-Gravenhage: Mouton & Company, 1962), p. 47.

<sup>127</sup>Ibid., p. 60.

<sup>128</sup>Levy, op. cit., p. 74.

<sup>129</sup>Ibid., p. 74.





and processes of change. Ponsioen defines the following concepts which may help to identify these processes:

Acculturation is the broadest concept and means an influence of one cultural system on another, or a mutual influence, that operates a change in at least one of these systems on at least one layer or sector of them.

Accommodation is a tolerant co-existence of opposite cultural systems.

Integration is every spontaneous acceptance of at least one element of one cultural system within another system.

Assimilation is the integration of a whole cultural system into another one.

Adjustment is a psychological term and means getting a feeling of acquaintance with elements of another system.

Adaptation is a behavioral term and means developing a behavior in accordance with new situations.

There is no generally accepted term for the process of growing a new cultural system out of two existing ones in contact with each other. The term of cultural fusion seems clearer than that of mutual integration.<sup>130</sup>

Resultant stage. This is the system as it exists after the changes have been made. The changes that occur may be of two types:

Manifest functions are those objective consequences contributing to the adjustment or adaptation of the system which are intended and recognized by participants in the system.

Latent functions, correlatively, being those which are neither intended or recognized.<sup>131</sup>

The three stages and the concepts presented assist in providing a framework for the analysis of change in social systems. Such analyses

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<sup>130</sup> Ponsioen, op. cit., p. 50.

<sup>131</sup> Robert K. Merton, Social Theory and Social Structure (Glencoe, Ill.: The Free Press, 1957), p. 51.





techniques are necessary in the comparative study of a system at two different periods in its growth or in describing the historical development of systems.

This section has attempted to illustrate some of the useful applications of sociological concepts for the description and analysis of systems of physical education. The concept of social systems with their structures, functions and master processes provides another type of framework for analysing the organizations which develop and promote these types of social activity. Physical education involves social interaction in both a non-social and sociocultural environment. In all organizations social change seems inevitable and the concepts presented may prove helpful in analysing such change and tracing the historical developments in physical education. It is evident, then, that sociology does provide many useful concepts for analysing the social interaction aspects of systems of physical education.

This chapter has attempted to provide a body of concepts and frameworks from the fields of anthropology and sociology which appear to have relevance for the study of systems of physical education as cultural and social phenomena. The studies of anthropologists and sociologists are, in many ways, very closely related. In some cases, as evidenced here in the study of change, the concepts of the two fields overlap. To a certain extent, the study of the same phenomenon from the two different perspectives, contributes to better understanding. Where these two fields overlap to create seemingly unnecessary duplication, there is a need for theorists in both fields to work toward



consensus on certain key definitions. Of course, consensus for the sake of consensus is not a sound enough basis for recommending establishment of shared definitions of terms. Concepts must be functional in terms of scientific analysis, explanation, and prediction. The principle of parsimony as a scientific guide to theory building has long traditions in science. There seems to be no reason for not applying the same principle to interdisciplinary studies. The ensuing chapter attempts to illustrate how many of the concepts presented here can be applied in the development of a conceptual framework for comparative physical education.





## CHAPTER V

### TOWARDS A CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK FOR COMPARATIVE PHYSICAL EDUCATION

It is possible to carry out empirical studies in comparative physical education without defining the concepts on which the particular approach to research is based. Most of the research accomplished thus far has been done in this manner. Many authors seem to feel that their empirical reports are written in such a way as to imply the theoretical concepts that they have employed and therefore do not feel obligated to make explicit statements to reveal their conceptual frameworks. As Malinowski indicates,

There is no such thing as description completely devoid of theory. Whether you reconstruct historic scenes, carry out a field investigation in a savage tribe or a civilized community, analyse statistics, or make inferences from an archaeological monument or a prehistoric find--every statement and every argument has to be made in words, that is, in concepts. Each concept, in turn, is the result of a theory which declares that some facts are relevant and others adventitious, that some factors determine the course of events and others are merely accidental by-play; that things happen as they do because personalities, masses, and material agencies of the environment produce them.<sup>1</sup>

Nevertheless, when a number of scholars commence to study phenomena from different starting points with different intellectual tools and somewhat different objectives, confusion mounts rapidly, communication becomes difficult, and the results do not accumulate.<sup>2</sup> This difficulty

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<sup>1</sup>Bronislaw Malinowski, A Scientific Theory of Culture (New York: Oxford University Press, 1960), p. 7.

<sup>2</sup>Ivan F. Nye and Felix M. Berardo, Emerging Conceptual Frameworks in Family Analysis (New York: The Macmillan Company, 1966), p. 5.



could be avoided if authors made some attempt to set forth, in a logical way, the basic conceptual frameworks that they are using in their research. This would make explicit the fact that a number of different frameworks representing various perspectives do exist for studying cultural and social phenomena and special aspects of these phenomena.<sup>3</sup> It also would provide other researchers and students with an opportunity to view the central concepts and underlying assumptions of each approach. Further empirical studies would serve to test the conceptual frameworks, reveal their inconsistencies, and thus provide valuable feedback for the development of sounder theory. According to Nye and Berardo:

Conceptual frameworks are a useful first step in theory-building in that they introduce an element of orderliness into research processes and findings. They are a useful tool in the development of propositions which will stand the tests of replication by other researchers and application to other populations with different cultures or subcultures. In short, we suggest that conceptual frameworks are necessary for good research and that good research is, in turn, necessary for the development of valid theory.<sup>4</sup>

In his proposals for the development of a sub-discipline of sports sociology, Kenyon has stated that:

No science can proceed without a clearly formulated set of theoretical and operational terms. They are essential prerequisites to clear and unambiguous communication, and thus permit the formulation and testing of useful hypotheses and theories. What is needed at the outset is the identification of those concepts and constructs fundamental to sport sociology. We must begin by selecting, defining, and classifying our basic terms of reference.<sup>5</sup>

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<sup>3</sup>Ibid.      <sup>4</sup>Ibid., p. 6.

<sup>5</sup>Gerald S. Kenyon, "Sport Sociology: On Becoming a Sub-Discipline," (an address delivered at the AAHPER National Convention, March 18, 1966), p. 5.





The task undertaken in this chapter is to present some concepts and classification schemes which may be useful for the comparative study of systems of physical education. Where applicable, the concepts and classification schemes that have been developed in the related fields of comparative education, cultural anthropology, and sociology are utilized. These have been presented in summary form in the previous chapters. In the end, it is hoped that the constructive aspect of this study, at the very least, will help to narrow by elimination the number of possible alternative paths towards the goal of providing a logical basis for the comparative study of systems of physical education.

#### I. SUGGESTED CRITERIA FOR A CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

A conceptual framework consists of the essential or important concepts employed to delineate the aspects of reality with which a subject deals. It includes the basic assumptions which underlie these concepts and to a degree integrates them into a meaningful configuration.<sup>6</sup> To a certain extent, it serves as a classification scheme and body of definitions which tells the researcher what variables are important for him to pay attention to when he views the types of phenomena which fall in the subject area.<sup>7</sup> Thus, it not only indicates the type of behavior which is treated but the substantive foci of research, and the basic assumptions which underlie research and action. A conceptual framework does not constitute a theory but it expedites

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<sup>6</sup>Nye and Berardo, op. cit., pp. 2-3.      <sup>7</sup>Ibid., p. 2.





sound and accumulative development of theory.

The aim of much of the work in the preceding two chapters was to describe and explain concepts in the related fields of comparative education, cultural anthropology, and sociology which appear to have application for the development of comparative studies of physical education. These concepts have useful application in several different ways. First, some concepts, those from comparative education in particular, provide information about the comparative method of research. Second, several classification schemes are presented which may assist the researcher in comparative physical education to identify the variables and relevant factors that are important for him to pay attention to. Third, these sections provide the basic theory--about culture and society, the structure and functioning of sociocultural systems, and the processes of cultural development and change--that is essential to understanding physical education as a social and cultural phenomenon. Thus, with this information about comparative methods, classification schemes, and basic underlying theory available, it is possible to begin constructing a conceptual framework for comparative physical education.

### The Theoretical Orientation

As mentioned in the introductory chapter the theoretical orientation suggested here is the study of physical education as a social and cultural phenomenon. This is facilitated by the use of empirical and theoretical concepts and frameworks. Applying theoretical concepts, physical education can be represented as a large sociocultural system



which is comprised of several sub-systems at various levels of generalization. Each system involves a number of personalities and acquires certain social and cultural characteristics which help to distinguish it from other systems. These characteristics may be material, behavioral, and ideological.

The system of physical education functions in an ecological setting comprised of geographic, climatic, biologic, and other features of the natural environment. It also interacts with many of the social and cultural aspects which make up its sociocultural situation. This system is dynamic and experiences constant processes of development and change which may be due to forces within the system itself, to factors in its natural setting and social and cultural situation, or to the influences of other cultures.

This brief outline of the theoretical orientation adopted to study physical education serves to point out the reasons for the presentation of much of the information in Chapter IV. If physical education is to be studied as a social and cultural phenomenon, it seems necessary for the researcher to familiarize himself with these basic theoretical concepts about culture and society. As Mills claims, he may then proceed with his work as "a self-conscious thinker, a man at work and aware of the assumptions and the implications of whatever he is about."<sup>8</sup> A broad theoretical understanding of culture and society serves to

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<sup>8</sup>C. W. Mills, "On Intellectual Craftsmanship," in Llewellyn Gross (ed.), Symposium on Sociological Theory (New York: Harper and Row Publishers, 1959), p. 25.





sharpen the observation of empirical data and provide some basis for the logical organization and understanding of it. It also provides a perspective of where physical education fits into sociocultural reality. However, it is useful to remember that many of these concepts are arbitrary divisions of reality which are employed to provide culture and society with a structure that is convenient for analytical purposes. Culture and society form a composite whole and any subdivision into parts is merely a theoretical abstraction of reality which facilitates observation and eventual understanding.

### The Comparative Approach

Bereday's four stages of description, explanation, juxtaposition, and comparison seem to offer a good basis for the comparative approach to use. The emphasis in this presentation is on the first two stages as the latter two are only necessary in actual empirical studies which compare two or more systems.

The description stage focuses on the structures and functions of the sociocultural system of physical education or any of its subsystems which are being analysed. The frameworks of Hilker, Hoz, and Holmes (Tables II, III, IV, pages 54, 55, and 56) are useful for this purpose. In addition, the structural and functional requisites and master processes of Loomis and Levy (Table VIII, page 100) provide a good theoretical basis for analysing the minimal conditions necessary for the continued existence of a social system. This stage, therefore, deals primarily with the system of physical education but involves the explanation of its internal functioning as well as the description of its



material, behavioral, and ideological characteristics.

In the explanation stage, the techniques of various social sciences are utilized to analyse the interaction of the system of physical education with features of the ecological setting and socio-cultural environment. A variety of approaches have been suggested for this stage of research and all seem to have some legitimate contribution to make. In keeping with more recent trends to interdisciplinary cooperation in research, it seems best to regard these various approaches as not necessarily conflicting but rather as each contributing knowledge on different aspects of the same phenomenon. This enables a more complete understanding of the real nature of the phenomenon under study, in this case, physical education. The historical approach of Kandel and Hans helps to reveal the historical development of the system and the factors of national character that have influenced it. Moehlman provides a framework for assessing the various long-range factors which determine a system's orientation, organization, and operation in a culture. King considers the possibility of utilizing computer models to assess the relevant factors and Anderson indicates the contributions that sociology can make to comparative investigations. The classification scheme for geographic, climatic, and human biologic factors adapted from White and Renner (Table V, page 67) is useful for studying the system's interaction with its ecological setting. Keesing's framework for the major aspects of culture (Table VI, page 77), seems to be a comprehensive structure for analysing the sociocultural situation factors. The study of the development and change in physical education may thus





benefit from several of the anthropological and sociological concepts presented.

### The Classification Schemes for Empirical Research

In order to facilitate the stages of description and explanation when analysing systems of physical education, a number of classification schemes are provided. First, the ecological setting in which the system of physical education functions is described. Second, the sociocultural situation factors which interact with the system of physical education are assessed. Third, the historical development and processes of stability and change of the system are considered. Then, the various institutions providing opportunities for physical education are identified and briefly described. Finally, a framework is provided for analysing the structures and functions of the various institutions that comprise the system of physical education. In the following sections each framework will be elaborated on by illustrating with some empirical examples how they may be utilized.

In summarizing, one might indicate that the conceptual framework which is being suggested is thought of as being much broader than just the classification schemes which are to be presented. It also includes the basic underlying theories and assumptions that provide understanding and reason for the use of certain frameworks, and for the organization and inclusion of the specific factors in them. It also includes the basic approach to comparative research that is utilized. Therefore, the conceptual framework is viewed as encompassing all the concepts that determine the ways the researcher attempts to study systems of





physical education.

## II. THE ECOLOGICAL SETTING

Many elements and processes in the natural or geographic environment interact with the systems of physical education which are being analysed. In some ways, these natural features facilitate certain physical activities while in others they may place restrictions on the activities that can be pursued. The following framework attempts to provide a means of assessing the types of factors in the ecological setting which may have an effect on the structures and functions of systems of physical education.

TABLE IX

### THE ECOLOGICAL SETTING FOR PHYSICAL EDUCATION

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#### A. GEOGRAPHY

1. Territoriality--Canada's great size and breadth have created many problems for physical education that do not develop in smaller countries like England and Belgium. It has been difficult to promote nation-wide competition in sports or to develop cooperative efforts between groups on opposite sides of the country. However, size also has its advantages and Canada has been able to set aside vast areas of the country as National and Provincial parks whereas this is not as feasible in smaller countries which have a large population. Thus, factors of territoriality do have certain effects on physical education and should be considered in any investigation.
  2. Physiography--The land forms which predominate in a given country may facilitate some types of physical activities and limit others. Mountainous countries like Switzerland and Austria are particularly suitable for sports like skiing and mountain climbing. Many of the larger nations,
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TABLE IX (Continued)

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like the Soviet Union, the United States and Canada, have a variety of physiographic regions and so certain areas of these countries tend to specialize in different sports. The Laurentian and western mountain regions of Canada are attractive for skiing and mountain climbing while the relatively flat Prairies are not. Although physiographic factors affect physical education, they are only a significant influence on the types of sports that require a certain terrain.

3. Hydrographic factors--Enthusiasts for swimming, boating, and other aquatic activities are attracted to the sea, lakes, rivers, and other waterways. Some countries like Canada and Sweden have been blessed with an abundance of such hydrographic features. The Muskoka, Kawartha, and Rideau Lakes regions of Ontario are all popular tourist regions because of the many aquatic activities that can be done there. Australians are attracted to the sea coasts of their country because the dry interior regions do not provide a good setting for aquatic activities. Thus, it is ways like these that hydrographic factors may have an influence on a country's physical education.
4. Biotic factors--Naturalists, hunters and out-doors-men are attracted to some countries or to certain regions of a country because of the presence of certain species of plant and animal life. Big game hunting is popular in countries like Kenya, Uganda, and South Africa. In Canada, Banff and Jasper National parks are only two of several large game preserves that attract thousands of Canadian and foreign visitors for camping and hiking. For certain types of physical activities, then, biotic factors may have an important influence in determining the suitability of a particular region.

## B. CLIMATE

1. Type--The average weather conditions that a country or region has throughout the seasons is not yet controlled by man and so it has an effect on some of his physical activities. Large countries like the Soviet Union and the United States may have several climatic regions while small ones like Denmark, Belgium and Luxembourg have a fairly uniform climate throughout. In addition, countries which are nearer the equator tend to experience less variation between the seasons. As a result, the United States with several
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TABLE IX (Continued)

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climatic regions and marked seasonal fluctuations in the northern regions has tended to develop a more diversified program of physical education as a nation, than has a country like South Africa which has more uniform climate.

2. Temperature--Countries like Canada, which have marked seasonal variations in temperature, tend to have a certain group of physical education activities for the warm summer months and a completely different group for the cooler winter season. In most Canadian schools it is necessary to have elaborate gymnasium facilities in order to conduct physical education in the winter season. This adds considerable expense to the physical education program and may severely restrict it in areas which cannot afford indoor facilities. On the other hand, most Australian schools do not have gymnasium facilities and are able to conduct their program outside for the whole year. The finances saved on facilities may then be channelled into other aspects of the program. Thus, temperature factors may play an important role in determining the quantity and quality of physical education in a specific country.
3. Precipitation--In similar ways, the average annual amount of precipitation and seasonal variations may affect the opportunities for outdoor activities. The monsoon rains in India and other countries may reduce the number of outdoor sports in certain seasons. Areas of heavy snow-fall like Switzerland, Austria, Sweden and Norway are attractive to winter sports enthusiasts. Thus, precipitation is another climatic factor which may affect certain aspects of physical education in different countries.

#### C. HUMAN BIOLOGICAL CHARACTERISTICS

1. Characteristic physique--As yet, little research has been done to determine the effect of national tendencies in physique on interest or success in certain types of physical activities. It would appear that shorter, slighter Asiatics may not be as interested in basketball or the weight events in track and field because of the limitations imposed by their physique.
  2. Race--In recent years, studies have been carried out by men like Jokl to determine whether there are anthropological
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TABLE IX (Continued)

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differences between the races which may affect physical performance in certain athletic events. This question may certainly offer further possibilities for investigation.

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These, then, are the ecological setting factors that may affect physical education in a country. Factors in the natural environment have an influence on only some aspects of physical education. As countries improve their levels of technical and economic development they are able to overcome many of the limitations of the natural environment or capitalize on certain benefits that it may provide.

### III. THE SOCIOCULTURAL SITUATION

By definition, the "sociocultural situation" consists of all the material, behavioral, and ideological components of other social systems which interact in some way with the system of physical education. In different countries, man has achieved varying degrees of success in developing and applying features in his culture to overcome the limitations of the natural environment or to create new and better conditions. Thus, in many ways, the various sociocultural systems in different countries have acted to facilitate or restrict the development and functioning of physical education. But it is also important to be aware that this activity is reciprocal, so that the system of physical education may also exert an influence on other sociocultural systems.

Many scholars have presented schemes for arbitrarily dividing





culture into major categories for research purposes. In comparative education, Moehlman presented a scheme for classifying the various long-range factors which had an influence on the education system (Table I, page 50). The framework which is to be developed is based on that of the cultural anthropologist, Keesing (Table VI, page 77). It sets out one scheme for looking at the major sociocultural systems that may interact with the system of physical education. Although Keesing's framework is employed there have been several others of a similar nature developed by other researchers such as Herskovits and Kluckholm which may just as easily be applied.

TABLE X

## THE SOCIOCULTURAL SYSTEMS AFFECTING PHYSICAL EDUCATION

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A. DEMOGRAPHIC FACTORS

1. Population--The size of a country's population indicates the numbers that can potentially be involved in physical education. It is easier for countries like the Soviet Union and the United States, with fairly large populations, to send strong teams to international competitions than it is for nations like Sweden, Norway, and Canada. In India, the rapid growth rates in population may present difficulties for the planning and development of adequate physical education programs. These and other population characteristics may have an effect on the physical education program which develops in a country.
  2. Settlement Pattern--Countries like Holland and Belgium with high population densities experience problems of acquiring adequate room for outdoor recreation facilities as compared to low density countries like Canada and Sweden. The type of physical education that develops in highly urbanized areas like the eastern seaboard may be considerably different from that which develops on the Prairies of Canada where a sparse population is spread over a large area.
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TABLE X (Continued)

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3. Ethnic patterns--A wide variety of ethnic groups in a country usually increases the diversity of sports and other physical recreation activities. Some countries, like the Soviet Union, encourage the retention of the characteristic physical activities by its various ethnic groups while in others like the United States "the melting pot" effect results in the gradual loss of ethnic characteristics and the taking on of typically American activities.

#### B. TECHNOLOGY AND THE MATERIAL CULTURE

Countries which have a high degree of technical development are usually able to provide more leisure time and better equipment and facilities for physical education than can underdeveloped nations.

1. Food and food customs--Shortages of food in many of the countries in Africa and Asia prevent proper growth and development for many children and limit the type of physical education which can be beneficial for them.
  2. Clothing and personal adornment--The customs of dress in some of the Arab nations prevent women from wearing the clothing necessary for certain athletic activities. In technically advanced nations a variety of clothing and protective wear is available for physical education.
  3. Housing and community setting--Generally, facilities like community centers, arenas, stadia, swimming pools, etc., are more readily available in nations which have advanced technology. In addition, countries which have more urban population than rural may find it easier to make facilities accessible to larger numbers of people.
  4. Travel and transportation--Countries like the United States and Canada which have well-developed transportation networks can more easily arrange sports competitions, clinics and conferences on physical education to include people from all parts of the country. This is not as feasible in countries like Kenya or Ghana where transportation is not yet well-developed.
  5. Tools, weapons, and machines--Various countries have reached different stages in technology for using tools and machines to produce sports equipment and elaborate facilities such as artificial ice, ski tows, and swimming pools which allow the introduction of several sports into the physical
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TABLE X (Continued)

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education program. In many countries the use of obsolete weapons such as the bow and arrow, and the sword has resulted in sports like archery and fencing.

6. Ceramics, Textiles and Metallurgy--The application of technology in these three fields in certain countries has resulted in improved equipment and protective wear in various aspects of physical education.

### C. ECONOMIC ORGANIZATION

The type of economic organization in a country, whether it is capitalism, communism, or socialism, will have important effects on the organization of physical education. The level of economic development may also be an important influence on the human, technical, and material resources which can be allocated to physical education.

1. Production--In some countries, the means of production involves the extensive use of physical labor and thus physical education in leisure hours is not as attractive. One should also assess what factors of production are given over to the development of facilities and equipment for physical education activities.
  2. Distribution--The development of physical education in a country will often be influenced by the proportion of economic resources that are allocated to it. In an economically prosperous country like the United States it is quite likely that a greater proportion of economic resources are distributed to physical education than in a nation like India which concentrates her economic resources on industrial and agricultural development.
  3. Consumption--In some countries, it is possible to get statistics which show the percentage of income which is spent on physical education and other leisure time activities. In economically underdeveloped areas much of the population's income is spent on food. In North America, the increasing surplus of wealth enables citizens to spend more on luxury goods and services which often include physical education activities.
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TABLE X (Continued)

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#### D. SOCIAL ORGANIZATION

The many factors of social organization in a country may play a significant role in determining the types of physical education activities that the society approve as being acceptable for various social groups.

1. Age and generation--In each country, there may be specific physical activities which are deemed suitable for certain age groups or different generations. In Canada, ball games and skating may be encouraged while children are very young but contact sports like football, boxing, and wrestling are not introduced until they are more mature.
  2. Sex--Similarly, each society prescribes that certain physical education activities are acceptable for both sexes while others are recommended for one sex or the other.
  3. Family--In some countries, like Denmark, Sweden, and Norway, close family ties lead to a preference for activities like hiking, camping, and ski-touring in which the whole family can be involved.
  4. Kinship--Strong kinship structures such as that which exist among the clans of Scotland, may stimulate interest in inter-clan competition such as often occurs in the Highland games.
  5. Voluntary association--Numerous clubs may result from the voluntary association of persons interested in similar sports or physical recreation activities. In certain countries, the formation of such voluntary association groups seems to be more common than in others. It is a factor which should be assessed when studying the physical education of a particular country.
  6. Rank-order--In countries where the demarcation between social classes is quite clear such as in England and the United States, each class level tends to group together for certain sports and recreation or each class may take up different types of sports. Consequently, many clubs for physical activities are formed on the basis of class distinctions. In some societies, athletes who excel in sports which have a high value orientation in the society, find that this increases their mobility from one class to another.
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TABLE X (Continued)

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E. POLITICAL ORGANIZATION

1. Common membership and loyalty--Associated with most international competitions is the fact that the competitors usually represent various countries. National loyalty and pride result in the citizens of a political unit supporting their own representatives and showing jubilation with their success and upset with their defeat. Each nation seems to develop stronger loyalties for athletes in their more popular sports, as the Canadians do for ice hockey and the English for football and cricket, and thus show increased interest when these are being contested.
  2. Shared traditions and symbols--Each country develops certain shared traditions and symbols, such as national songs, flags and emblems, and these are often used to identify their athletic teams. Often characteristic national sports festivals like the World Series in the United States or the Stanley Cup in Canada become a national institution. In others, sports activities are included in the celebrations accompanying national holidays.
  3. Internal government--Government policy may have a very significant effect on the development of physical education in a country. In many nations, government agencies take on responsibilities in the areas of planning, development and promotion of physical education. The communist nations seem to have been particularly active in government participation in promoting physical education activities. In Canada, the passing of the Fitness and Amateur Sport Act in 1961 was a move in this direction. The South African government's apartheid policy has a significant effect on the organization of physical education in that country.<sup>a</sup>
  4. External relations--The external political relations of different countries have an important influence on certain sports, particularly those which are competed in on an international level. Rhodesian athletes were not allowed to compete at the recent British Empire Games in Jamaica because of the Smith regime's dispute with Britain. South Africa's apartheid policy has resulted in that country's exclusion from several international competitions. In these and many other ways, political relations have an important effect on international sport.
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TABLE X (Continued)

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## F. SOCIAL CONTROL

1. Social conformity--The nature and degree of pressure for social conformity in various nations may have an influence on citizen participation in physical education activities. In Sweden for example there appears to be more social pressure for people to keep physically fit and participate in physical activities in adult years<sup>b</sup> than there appears to be in Canada. In many subtle ways, the pressures for social conformity may shape the characteristics of physical education in a country.
2. Response to breaches of rules--Each society has established different means of apprehending and punishing those members who break the rules and these patterns tend to carry over into sport activities. Sometimes, it is necessary for individuals or organizations to use the law courts to settle disputes, as for example, deciding who has the right to certain professional athletes, or deciding whether an athlete is eligible to play in a particular league. Thus, the means of social control in the society also apply to physical education.

## G. WORLD VIEW

1. Knowledge--In certain countries accumulated knowledge and attitudes towards the accumulation of knowledge have been an important factor in the development of physical education. In Canada and the United States the knowledge from related fields like physiology and physics is increasingly being applied to physical education in the graduate schools and research institutes of various universities. The Russians have shown a keen interest in gathering knowledge about physical activities from other countries and no doubt this has contributed to their success in international sport in recent years. Therefore, knowledge is an important factor influencing the development of physical education.
  2. Philosophy--The existence of what Lauwerys calls "national styles" in philosophy may influence the different values for physical education that are held in different countries. The citizens of each country seem to develop certain beliefs about the values and proper conduct of sports, games, and other physical recreation activities,
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TABLE X (Continued)

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and for physical education in the school program. The Scandinavians tend to emphasize the fitness aspects and the English the development of character and proper social behavior. Thus, belief systems may influence the approach to physical activities.

3. Religion--Athletic contests have often been an important aspect of religious festivals, as, for example, the Olympics of ancient Greece. Predominant religious beliefs in a country may determine when physical activities may not take place or may indicate what types of behavior are acceptable or not acceptable. It is important to try to understand how religious belief systems may influence a country's physical education.

#### H. ART AND PLAY

1. The major arts--In many countries, there are close relationships between physical education and certain aspects of the major arts. Athletes and athletic events have been the topic of many sculptures and works of graphic art. Music and dance often represent important elements of physical education as is seen in Danish rhythmical gymnastics. The amount of contact between the major arts and physical education may vary considerably from one country to another.
2. Play--Physical activities form a very important aspect of play. It is under this category of culture that the system of physical education belongs. Thus, the study of the characteristics of play in a nation is an important approach to understanding its physical education.

#### I. LANGUAGE

1. Human communication--Many of the symbols which are necessary for human communication relate specifically to the structures and functions of physical education. Good communication is also essential for the effective development and functioning of systems of physical education.
  2. Distribution and dynamics of language--Where two or more languages exist within an area, difficulties of communication arise and hamper the functioning of other social systems such as physical education. The bilingual aspects of Canadian culture result in certain administrative and
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TABLE X (Continued)

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organizational problems in physical education. But bilingualism also contributes diversity to sport's terms and activities. Contact between the two language groups stimulates dynamic change in each of them. Switzerland, with four national languages, and India, with over 240 dialects, may provide further examples of the difficulties experienced in physical education because of differences in language.

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<sup>a</sup>Mary Draper, Sport and Race in South Africa (Johannesburg: South African Institute of Race Relations, 1963).

<sup>b</sup>Hudson Strode, Sweden--Model for a World (New York: Harcourt, Brace and Company, 1949), pp. 250-51.

These various categories of the sociocultural situation attempt to guide the researcher to the types of data which may be relevant for physical education. In one country, certain social or cultural aspects may play a much more significant role than they do in others. Some aspects of a country's culture may have a very important effect on physical education while other aspects may have little effect. In any analysis of a system of physical education, it is essential that the effect of factors in the sociocultural situation be considered.

#### IV. THE DEVELOPMENT AND CHANGE OF SYSTEMS OF PHYSICAL EDUCATION

If the study of a system of physical education is to be complete, some effort must be made to describe its historical development and to analyse the dynamic processes which cause it to change. Certain processes contribute to the system's stability while others are the result





of adjustments to new conditions in its internal and external context. Often changes are stimulated by forces in the systems of physical education in other cultures. Relevant to the task of describing the various processes contributing to stability or change are the anthropological and sociological concepts which are used to study cultural dynamics and social change. Previously, a framework was provided for the study of cultural development and change (Table VII, page 84), and it can be utilized as a basis for the study of the development and change in the system of physical education. The history of physical education is replete with examples which illustrate the working of the processes of change in various parts of this framework.

TABLE XI

A FRAMEWORK FOR STUDYING THE DEVELOPMENT AND CHANGE OF  
SYSTEMS OF PHYSICAL EDUCATION

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A. LONG-TERM DEVELOPMENT AND CHANGE IN PHYSICAL EDUCATION

It is useful to study the origin and development of the various institutions in a system of physical education. It is possible to assess the influence of certain individuals, such as Ling in Sweden, on the development of physical education in a country. Through the processes of enculturation and socialization the people of each country learn their traditional physical education activities and conform to acceptable modes of behavior while doing such activities. Over the years, the ecological, social and cultural factors have influenced the development of the system of physical education thus giving the system of each country certain distinctive characteristics. The citizens of each country have certain values for physical education and these may influence the acceptance or rejection of new activities. Thus, many factors are involved in the long-term development and gradual change of different systems of physical education.

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TABLE XI (Continued)

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## B. INNOVATION

Each country has had different inventions and innovations in their systems of physical education. Ice hockey was invented in Canada, soccer in England, and basketball in the United States. The Americans and Canadians added several new features to English rugby to develop their own distinctive sport of football. In every system of physical education, innovation has played an important role in its development.

## C. PROCESSES OF CULTURAL TRANSFER

Many of the features of physical education in a country have come from other countries as a result of the processes of acculturation and diffusion. Golf and curling were brought to Canada by Scottish settlers and basketball, volleyball, and baseball came from the United States. Often the borrowed features were adapted to suit the new setting, as occurred when the Ling system of gymnastics was introduced into the United States. In Japan, the total acceptance of volleyball and baseball from the United States is an example of assimilation. These examples illustrate the importance of accounting for the features which have been transferred from other cultures when studying the development of physical education in a country.

## D. RATE OF CHANGE; LOCI OF STABILITY AND CHANGE

Each country tends to develop a core of physical activities which give its system of physical education stability. Some may be oriented to fitness activities, such as in Sweden, or to sports and games, as in England. In some countries there may be resistance to new activities being introduced while in others these new features may be encouraged. The differences in attitudes towards change in various countries or within a country towards change in various sports results in the stability of some features and the change of others.

## E. CULTURAL DISORGANIZATION AND REORGANIZATION

With changes in a system of physical education some disorganization may result. But the tensions produced by this usually stimulate people in the physical education system to reorganize it and make the necessary adaptations to overcome difficulties. It seems likely that many institutions sponsoring physical activities in Canada experienced such disorganization and





TABLE XI (Continued)

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reorganization when grants from the Fitness and Amateur Sport Directorate became available to them. The processes which aid in reorganization are essential for the development of a better system of physical education.

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This treatment of the analysis of the development and change of systems of physical education has been very brief. It does provide some ideas, however, of the application of certain concepts from anthropology and sociology for studying the historical development of physical education and some of the dynamic processes that take place in such a functioning system.

#### IV. THE SYSTEM OF PHYSICAL EDUCATION: STRUCTURES AND FUNCTIONS

In any investigation it is necessary to identify and define the concrete units to which the analysis is to be applied. The definition of the units is somewhat arbitrary but each should have an empirical referent (some aspects of empirical phenomena which it identifies) and should be capable, in theory at least, of physical separation from other units of similar types.<sup>9</sup> In this case, the units which make up the large system of physical education are sociocultural systems involving social action amongst a plurality of individuals.

It is also necessary to describe the structures and analyse the functions of these units. The structures are the observable uniformities

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<sup>9</sup>Marion J. Levy, The Structure of Society (Princeton, N.J.: Princeton University Press, 1952), p. 35.





or patterns of action which exist, while the functions are the conditions which result from their operation.<sup>10</sup> Facilitating this step in the research process are the concepts of structural and functional requisites; the minimal structures and functions required for the unit to exist.<sup>11</sup> But a requisite analysis gives a systematic approach to only the minimal conditions and patterns.<sup>12</sup> Analysis must move from this basic level of organization to the more specific structures and functions which characterize the unit. This is where frameworks such as those of Hoz and Holmes have useful application.

The following approach to the study of the institutions concerned with physical education has been adopted. First, those institutions in the community which provide opportunities for physical education are identified. Then, physical education at different levels of the school system is assessed. This is followed by the treatment of the various coordinating organizations in physical education. Finally, a framework is presented for analysing the structures and functions of the various institutions in the system of physical education.

#### Out-of-School Activities in Physical Education

Many institutions provide opportunities for students to participate in physical activities in after-school hours. The adult population also may take part in a number of physical education sport, and physical recreation activities. The institutions which provide such activities may be classified by the following framework which is based on one developed by Holmes (Table IV, page 56):

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<sup>10</sup>Ibid., pp. 56-57.    <sup>11</sup>Ibid., pp. 62-63.    <sup>12</sup>Ibid., p. 71.



TABLE XII

INSTITUTIONS PROVIDING OPPORTUNITIES FOR OUT-OF-SCHOOL PHYSICAL  
EDUCATION ACTIVITIES

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A. SOCIAL/CULTURAL

1. Family--During leisure time and holidays many families take part in activities such as camping, hiking, skiing, various aquatic sports, and a wide variety of recreational games. Many nations develop preferences towards certain sports and recreational activities for family participation.
  2. Educational institutions--Many adult and community physical education programs are conducted in the schools during the evening and holiday periods.
  3. Parent organizations--The home and school associations, service clubs, and other organizations such as the Red Cross may be active in promoting the development of facilities and programs for physical education.
  4. Youth movements--Included in this category are organizations like the Y.M.C.A., Y.W.C.A., Boy Scouts, Girl Guides, and the Youth Hostel Association, which promote certain physical activities.
  5. Mass media--In recent years, the mass media of radio, films, the press, and, in particular, television have played an increasingly important role in exposing the population to a wide variety of sports and physical recreation pastimes. These media may have a direct or indirect effect of stimulating increased participation in such activities.
  6. Clubs--Many clubs develop to teach and provide competition in a wide variety of sports. Private clubs provide facilities and programs for their members in sports such as golf, curling and tennis. Other clubs may bring together people who are interested in non-competitive activities such as mountain climbing, canoe tripping, and camping.
  7. Associations--Associations develop to coordinate activities between a number of clubs which sponsor the same types of activities. They perform valuable functions of arranging competitions, allocating facilities, providing officials, and promoting leadership training.
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TABLE XII (Continued)

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8. Formal pupil organizations--The alumni at most universities play an important role in supporting the athletic program through financial contributions and attendance at sport functions.
  9. Religious Institutions--In many communities, the church plays a significant part by sponsoring different sports teams and youth movements. Many of the more recent church buildings have halls which are used for recreational purposes at certain times.

#### B. ECONOMIC

1. Industrial organizations--Many industries have developed recreational facilities for employees and their families and have a social and athletic club to organize and promote activities. Industrial leagues are common for such sports as baseball, softball, hockey and basketball. Labor unions have also played a very active role in promoting such activities.
2. Commercial organizations--A very important aspect of physical education are the commercial organizations who provide facilities for people to participate or promote sports activities for spectators. Professional sports draw thousands of spectators each year and commercial swimming pools, bowling alleys, golf courses, ski areas, beaches, and camping areas cater to large segments of the population.
3. Agricultural organizations--Agricultural organizations such as 4-H clubs and cooperatives may sponsor riding, rodeo and other outdoor activities.

#### C. POLITICAL

1. Political institutions--Increasingly, government departments and agencies are accepting the responsibility of developing, promoting and supporting programs of physical education and recreation. In 1961, the federal government of Canada passed the Fitness and Amateur Sport Act to establish a National Advisory Council and a full-time Directorate in order "to encourage, promote and develop fitness and amateur sport . . . ."a In most provinces Community Programs branches or Departments of Youth promote such activities. Many
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TABLE XII (Continued)

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communities have Recreation departments and employ full-time or part-time personnel to organize recreational programs for their citizens.

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<sup>a</sup>M. L. Van Vliet (ed.), Physical Education in Canada (Scarborough: Prentice-Hall of Canada, Limited, 1965), p. 293.

This scheme illustrates how many organizations outside of the school system have important functions in developing and operating programs of physical education. Some are involved in a diversified program of several physical activities while others are concerned with one particular sport or recreational pastime. In one country, family activities may be an important factor, in another, youth movements may be strong, and, in still another, sports clubs. The use of this framework in empirical research will help illustrate the ways in which these different types of institutions may play an important role in out-of-school physical education activities.

#### Physical Education Within the School System

The classification scheme presented is based on one developed by Hilker (Table II, page 54). However, the focus of attention is on the aspects of the school system that are concerned with physical education. With each part of the framework there are one or two comments on physical education at that particular level of the school system in Canada.





TABLE XIII

## PHYSICAL EDUCATION AT DIFFERENT LEVELS WITHIN THE SCHOOL SYSTEM

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A. PRE-SCHOOL EDUCATION

Games and physical activities often form an important part of nursery and kindergarten programs.

## B. EDUCATION AT THE FIRST LEVEL

## Stage 1--Primary Schools

Physical education is usually included in the curriculum and is conducted by the classroom teacher rather than a specialist in most cases.

## C. EDUCATION AT THE SECOND LEVEL

Stage 2--Intermediate schools, the upper section of elementary schools, lower section of high schools. The physical education at these levels is usually more extensive and under the supervision of specialized or semi-specialized teachers.

Stage 3--Upper section of high schools, vocational schools. Physical education is usually a compulsory subject for at least one year and often all years at this level. The facilities are usually more extensive than at the lower levels and specialist teachers of physical education predominate.

## D. EDUCATION AT THE THIRD LEVEL

Stage 4--Undergraduate colleges, lower stages of university study, technical schools, teacher training. Many colleges, universities, and technical schools have a compulsory physical education course for first-year students and administer intra-mural and inter-school activities for all years. Teacher training usually includes some physical education for all teachers.

Stage 5--Professional schools, higher stages of university study, teacher education. Included at this level are the programs of study which are designed to prepare specialists for the fields of physical education and recreation.

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TABLE XIII (Continued)

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#### E. EDUCATION AT THE FOURTH LEVEL

Stage 6--Postgraduate study and research. In Canada, the Universities of Alberta, British Columbia, Saskatchewan, Ottawa, and Western Ontario offer postgraduate work in physical education. Research in physical education is carried on at a number of universities.

#### F. EDUCATION AT SPECIAL SCHOOLS

Physical education programs are often developed at schools for the handicapped or for children with special talents. In some countries military schools are common and in others a system of private schools is in evidence and both types tend to emphasize physical activities in their curricula.

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This table provides a scheme for identifying and describing physical education at various levels of the school system. The terms "levels" and "stages" are used to avoid the confusion of the different names that various countries have for the same stage. Thus, the German "gymnasium" and English "grammar school" would be included in stage 3. The section on special schools is an addition to Hilker's framework. In summary, it is a framework that should assist researchers to describe physical education in the school system.

#### Coordinating Organizations

In addition to identifying the organizations in the school and the community which promote physical education, it is necessary to consider those organizations which are primarily concerned with performing the function that Loomis calls, "systemic linkage."<sup>13</sup> These

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<sup>13</sup>Charles P. Loomis, Social Systems: Essays on Their Persistence and Change (Princeton, N.J.: D. Van Nostrand Co., Inc., 1960), p. 32.



organizations perform a variety of functions which are aimed at the effective linkage of a number of independent social systems for specified activities.<sup>14</sup> Thus, certain bodies work to coordinate the activities and relationships between: (1) organizations promoting many different types of sports or activities; (2) organizations promoting the same sport; and (3) professionals in various aspects of the field and working in different parts of the country. The following framework attempts to classify the types of organizations responsible for coordination in the system of physical education.

TABLE XIV  
COORDINATING ORGANIZATIONS IN PHYSICAL EDUCATION

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A. GOVERNMENT

Government agencies such as the Fitness and Amateur Sport Directorate, Community Programs branches, Departments of Youth, and Physical Education branches in the Department of Education all have important coordinating functions in addition to other services they may perform.

B. MULTIPLE SPORTS GOVERNING BODIES

The Canadian Amateur Athletic Union and the Canadian Olympic Associations are examples of bodies which serve to coordinate the activities of organizations sponsoring a number of different types of sport.

C. SPORTS GOVERNING BODIES

In the fiscal year 1965-66, the Fitness and Amateur Sport Directorate made grants to national sports governing bodies in thirty-nine different sports.<sup>a</sup> As all the national sports

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<sup>14</sup> Ibid., p. 33.





TABLE XIV (Continued)

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bodies did not receive grants, the total number is considerably more than this.

#### D. AGENCIES OPERATING NATIONAL PROGRAMS

Agencies such as the Royal Canadian Legion, the Canadian Red Cross Water Safety Division, the Canadian Camping Association, the Y.M.C.A. and the Y.W.C.A. are involved in promoting and coordinating programs on a nation-wide scale with branches at the provincial and/or local levels.

#### E. PROFESSIONAL ASSOCIATIONS

The Canadian Association for Health, Physical Education, and Recreation (CAHPER) and the Parks and Recreation Association of Canada (PRAC) are two examples of organizations which function to facilitate relationships between personnel working in different parts of the country and perhaps specializing in different aspects of the field.<sup>b</sup>

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<sup>a</sup>The Fitness and Amateur Sport Program Annual Report (Ottawa: Department of National Health and Welfare, 1965-66), pp. 11-13.

<sup>b</sup>The Fitness and Amateur Sport Program Annual Reports (Ottawa: Department of National Health and Welfare, 1961-66).

This framework provides the means for identifying the variety of coordinating organizations that have essential functions in the system of physical education. This, then, completes the frameworks which are utilized to identify and briefly define all the types of organizations which make up the large system of physical education. It includes physical education as it is developed and promoted by the school system and by the many public, private, and commercial organizations in the community. With this perspective of the system of physical education it is now possible to delve further into the structures and functions of each organization in it.



### The Structures and Functions of Physical Education Organizations

After various organizations of physical education have been identified and briefly described, their structures and functions must be analysed in greater detail. Loomis and Levy both provide frameworks of structural and functional requisites, and master processes, that direct attention to the basic activities that an organization must perform in order to survive. Some applications of this type of framework to empirical data have been illustrated previously. Hoz has developed a scheme for the classification of data for the comparison of schools (Table III, page 55), and it is possible, with slight alterations, to use this to analyse the various organizations concerned with physical education.

TABLE XV

#### CLASSIFICATION OF DATA FOR THE COMPARISON OF PHYSICAL EDUCATION ORGANIZATIONS

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##### A. ORIGIN AND EVOLUTION OF THE ORGANIZATION

The concepts of innovation, diffusion, acculturation, integration, adaptation and so on have useful application in describing the origin and historical development of organizations of physical education.

##### B. AIMS AND OBJECTIVES

The aims and objectives of most organizations are available in written form but also may be derived from observing what the organization attempts to do. The aims and objectives usually represent in brief form the reasons for the organization's existence and what goals it hopes to achieve.

##### C. PERSONNEL

In different organizations, there are varying degrees of role

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TABLE XV (Continued)

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differentiation which place the personnel into a number of positions:

1. Professional staff--Depending on the organization, professional staff may include paid or volunteer teachers, instructors, coaches, supervisors, managers, directors, and administrators. In each case, their background training and experience should be discussed as well as their responsibilities in their present position.
2. Technicians--Technicians would include persons employed for the development and maintenance of facilities and equipment, clerical staff, technical advisors, trainers, etc.
3. Participants--The numbers of participants and their sex, age, and social characteristics should be assessed. Organizations usually establish qualifications for membership and assign members certain responsibilities.

#### D. MATERIAL ELEMENTS

1. Buildings and outdoor facilities--An assessment of the quantity and quality of facilities such as stadia, gymnasia, arenas, clubrooms, playing fields, tracks etc., provide some insight into the type of program that can be run and the number of participants that can be involved.
2. Equipment--Most sports and physical activities require specialized equipment and the kind and availability should be indicated.
3. Instructional materials--A wide variety of books and other literature may be available to aid instruction in physical education. It is also common practice to use photographs, films and other audio-visual aids for teaching physical skills and promoting physical activities.

#### E. ORGANIZATION

1. Control factors--Control factors include the constitutions, laws, regulations and policies which affect the organization. The bodies which are responsible for policy framing and policy adoption should be identified.
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TABLE XV (Continued)

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2. Budget--Consideration should be given to the sources of income and the expenditures of an organization and to the persons who have the responsibility for such functions.
  3. Administration--Administration is the arrangement of personnel in positions with varying degrees of power and responsibilities so that they might make the necessary decisions for policy implementation and the effective operation of the organization. This may be performed in different ways in different organizations.
  4. Supervision--Supervision is the process by which members with specialized abilities provide consultation for other members. It would include on-the-job and in-service training, refresher courses and consultation services.
  5. Curriculum or program methods of instruction--A description of the curriculum or program and the methods of instruction that are utilized to present it provides a good deal of information about the nature of the organization.

#### F. EXTERNAL RELATIONS

1. With other organizations--Each organization may develop relations with several other organizations of similar or different types to facilitate its own operation. Some organizations form into associations for cooperation in certain endeavours.
  2. With the community--An organization in performing its functions will develop certain relations with other members in the community. The response of parents to different sports and recreation programs and to physical education in the schools may play an important role in the continued success of these programs.
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This framework provides some logical order for the analysis of the structures and functions of each of the organizations that make up the social system of physical education. When coupled with the scheme of structural and functional requisites, with which it overlaps to some



degree, it provides a useful approach to analysing these organizations in much greater depth.

The frameworks in Tables XII to XV are designed to identify and define the various organizations or sub-systems in the schools and the community that comprise the social system of physical education. They also provide a means for analysing the structures and functions of such sub-systems. All these frameworks are intended to guide the researcher to look for certain types of empirical data when he is studying a system of physical education.

This chapter represents an attempt to provide a conceptual framework for the comparative study of systems of physical education. The comparative approach that has been adopted includes the stages of description, explanation, juxtaposition, and comparison. Several classification schemes have been provided for identifying and describing the component systems of physical education and assessing the relevant factors in the ecological, social, and cultural environment that affect their structures and functions. The following framework is an overview of all these schemes and may be useful to more clearly illustrate the conceptual framework which has been proposed here for comparative physical education:





TABLE XVI

## A CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK FOR ANALYSING A SYSTEM OF PHYSICAL EDUCATION

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A. ECOLOGICAL SETTING

1. Geography
2. Climate
3. Human biological characteristics

## B. SOCIOCULTURAL SITUATION

1. Demographic factors
2. Technology and material culture
3. Economic organization
4. Social organization
5. Political organization
6. Social control
7. Worldview
8. Art and play
9. Language

## C. THE DEVELOPMENT AND CHANGE OF SYSTEMS OF PHYSICAL EDUCATION

1. Long-term development and change in physical education
2. Innovation
3. Processes of cultural transfer
4. Rates of change; loci of stability and change
5. Cultural disorganization and reorganization

## D. THE SYSTEM OF PHYSICAL EDUCATION

1. Social/Cultural
    - Family
    - Educational institutions
    - Parent organizations
    - Youth movements
    - Mass media
    - Clubs
    - Associations
    - Formal pupil associations
    - Religious institutions
  2. Economic
    - Industrial organizations
    - Commercial organizations
    - Agricultural organizations
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TABLE XVI (Continued)

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- 
- 3. Political
    - Political institutions
  - 4. The School System
    - Pre-school
    - First level
    - Second level
    - Third level
    - Fourth level
    - Special
  - 5. Coordinating Organizations
    - Government
    - Multiple sports governing bodies
    - Sports governing bodies
    - Agencies operating national programs
    - Professional associations

#### E. STRUCTURES AND FUNCTIONS OF PHYSICAL EDUCATION ORGANIZATIONS

- 1. Origin and evolution
  - 2. Aims and objectives
  - 3. Personnel
  - 4. Material elements
  - 5. Organization
  - 6. External relations
- 
- 

This table illustrates a framework that can be utilized for analysing a system of physical education. It provides a scheme for identifying the component sub-systems of the system of physical education and for assessing their structures and functions. It also provides for the identification of the factors in the ecological setting and sociocultural situation of the system that may interact with it. The success of this conceptual structure depends on its ability to direct the researcher to many of the factors which are relevant for understanding a system of physical education.



## CHAPTER VI

### SUMMARY AND RECOMMENDATIONS

#### Summary

The purpose of the study was to provide a rationale for the development of comparative studies of physical education. It is contended that the previous chapters meet the intent of the four purposes of the study which were enumerated in Chapter I. Recent comparative studies of physical education have been identified and evaluated. The merits of comparative studies have been set forth. Selected literature in the fields of comparative education, cultural anthropology, and sociology has been researched. With a reasoned eclecticism, certain portions of various conceptual frameworks have been modified and utilized in the preceding chapter to provide a strategic structure to approach comparative studies systematically, and in a manner which purports to highlight certain subtle, covert, or latent influences of physical education which more narrowly-conceived frameworks might miss. In effect, this study represents an additional step toward bringing the social sciences to the service of physical education. Of course, ideally all scientific findings should be cumulative in effect and this study, with its emphasis on an interdisciplinary perspective, has sought to provide a useful heuristic device and strategic structure to contribute toward this aim, especially as it affects comparative physical education per se. It is contended that the illustrations narrated in





the last chapter suggest the usefulness of the structure around which comparative studies of physical education may be developed. It is further contended that comparative studies of physical education provide the basis for a broad perspective of the development of the field, for a more intelligent introduction of innovations into a given administrative unit, for a more sophisticated approach to the education of physical educators who are conceived of as change agents, and for improved international understanding in general.

### Recommendations

1. This conceptual framework could be used for empirical studies. These would provide an indication of its usefulness and reveal its weaknesses.
2. Since this study is an overview, additional studies could provide more detailed frameworks for each of the components of the general frameworks which have been provided.
3. Further studies could investigate in greater depth the relevance of theory in the related fields for comparative studies of physical education. Investigations might be extended to the fields of comparative religion, comparative politics, comparative economics, comparative psychology, and comparative philosophy.
4. Physical educators who are interested in doing research in comparative physical education should arrange to hold a conference with the aim of defining the purposes of this subject and working cooperatively to develop conceptual frameworks for its study.
5. The personality dimensions of systems of physical education



have not been considered in this study and could be investigated in future studies. Similarly, studies in leadership and group dynamics would be of value to the physical educator who took seriously his function as a change agent in society.





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